

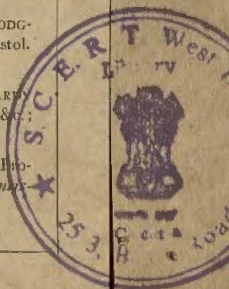
THE · TEACHING · OF
ENGLISH · GRAMMAR · AND
ELEMENTARY · LATIN

L.W. WILSDEN M.A.

BLACKIE AND SON, LIMITED

Library of Pedagogics

- The Teaching of English. By A. E. ROBERTS, M.A., Principal Lecturer in English at the Islington Day Training College, and A. BARTER, L.L.A., late Headmistress of the Braintree Pupil Teacher School. 2s. 6d. net.
- Colour-Sense Training and Colour Using. By E. J. TAYLOR, Heald Council School. With 16 Full-page Colour Plates. 1s. 6d. net.
- Health in the School. By J. S. C. ELKINGTON, M.D., D.P.H., Head of the Department of Public Health in Tasmania. 2s. net.
- The Teaching of Latin. By W. H. S. JONES, M.A., the Perse Grammar School, Cambridge, author of *Greek Morality*. 1s. net.
- The Teaching of Modern Languages. By CLOUDESLEY BRERETON, M.A., L.-ES.-L., Occasional Inspector to the Board of Education. 1s. net.
- The Teaching of Grammar. ENGLISH AND ELEMENTARY LATIN. By L. W. WILSDEN, M.A. 1s. net.
- The School and the Child. Selections from the educational essays of Prof. JOHN DEWEY of New York. Edited by Prof. J. J. FINDLAY, M.A., Manchester. 1s. net.
- The Education of Girls in Switzerland and Bavaria. By ISABEL L. RHYS, Headmistress of Liverpool High School. 1s. net.
- The Teacher's Rabelais. ~~Presented~~ by GERALDINE HODGSON, Mistress of Method at University College, Bristol. 1s. net.
- Natural Elocution in Speech and Song. By M'HARRY FLINT, Professor of Elocution, Maynooth College, &c.; Examiner, Royal Irish Academy of Music. 1s. net.
- Reynolds's Discourses on Art. A Selection, edited by Professor J. J. FINDLAY, M.A., Manchester. *With Frontispiece*. 2s. net.



LC, R. T. W. B. LIBRARY

Date

Access. No. 9508

do/398

7608

PREFACE

These suggestions for the teaching of English grammar are the outcome of experience gained during a good many years' work in a first-class preparatory school; if there be any merit in them, it lies in a proved practical utility.

The problem presented to the author was, how to teach in the least possible time, the smallest amount of English grammar that would enable a boy really to profit by his Latin lessons. The following pages give the solution gradually arrived at.

The form adopted in the main argument is that which would be used in addressing a class; the notes are "asides" intended for the teacher or the class, according to circumstances. But it must be remembered that this book is exactly what it professes to be, namely a book of suggestions for teachers, and in no sense a school-book; for in the writer's opinion, early teaching in grammar, to be of any real value, must be wholly oral.

Older people, however, who have grown up

Ed
398

789

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND ELEMENTARY LATIN

BOOK I THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER I.—INTRODUCTION

When I was quite small I lived in a town, and a great part of my time used to be spent in gazing down upon the world from my nursery window, which looked out upon the street. From this height I gained my first impressions of the world outside. I was interested in buses and carriages, in horses and dogs, in monkeys and organs, but the first human being, that I distinctly remember, was a man who came up the roadway in the early morning with a reiterated cry upon his lips. The cry conveyed no meaning to my ears, but the man himself was at once a source of shrinking and wonder, for he was black from head to

foot. His clothes, skin, and hair were of one uniform tone, and he carried on his back a bundle of what looked like broomsticks, which also were as black as ink.

Enquiry elicited the fact that this man was a sweep, and that his appalling blackness was due to soot.

Many were my speculations as to his manner of life, how he managed to sit at table, what sort of a bed he slept in, whether he could ever get all the blackness off; but these speculations and their results are of no interest now. What does claim our attention is the fact that this man of awe-inspiring griminess was the first human being whom I identified with his calling in life, and that I did this because his calling had left visible signs upon his person.

Not long after this, I observed that the men who brought the coals were also black, though they had not the depth of shade proper to a sweep; while the baker's man was always powdered with white.

Gradually the fact became established in my mind that the work which men did, sometimes left marks upon them whereby I might tell what that work was, and that I might know what the men would be called, when classed according to their trades.

I do not actually remember carrying my observations further than this point, and I was content in my walks abroad to identify all the sweeps, coalmen, and bakers' men that I happened to meet, without enquiring whether there were any more kinds of men whose calling I might detect.

If I had been a little more wide awake, I should have been more curious, and I should also have noticed, what I did not notice, namely that the sweeps, coalmen, and bakers' men were very few in comparison with the ordinary-looking men about whom I could tell nothing.

Now I want you to make this observation, which I was too sleepy to make, and to realize that it is only a few men whose work leaves such marks upon them, that it is possible at a glance to tell what that work is and therefore what the men are.

Suppose, having noticed all this, that it became of vital importance for you to find out, without asking any questions, what one or two of these ordinary-looking men were by trade, what would you do?

That is a little puzzle, to which the answer is perfectly easy. It is this. You would have to play at being a detective, and would have

to follow the man, about whom you were curious, till you tracked him to the place where he worked. You would then have to watch him and see on what sort of work he was engaged. When you had found this out you would know what his trade was, and would therefore be able to describe him by the name given to men who do that particular kind of work.

One or two examples will serve to make our meaning clearer. We will suppose that you see a man walking along with a bag of tools on his back, and become curious to discover his calling. He walks along and you follow him, till you come to a place where some new shops are being built. The man goes behind the hoarding, and presently you see him sawing planks on the second floor. This is all you want. You say to yourself, "This man is working with wood; working in wood is the trade of a carpenter, therefore this man is a carpenter".

If instead of sawing planks you had seen him placing bricks in position, you would have reasoned differently. You would then have said, "This man is laying bricks; a man who lays bricks is a bricklayer, therefore this man is a bricklayer".

Sometimes you will be spared the trouble of following your man, for you may happen to come across him when he is actually engaged upon his employment.

Let us say, for example, that a bus is coming down the road. You know at once that the man who guides the horses is a bus-driver. He is actually bus-driving at the time you see him, and there can therefore be no doubt on the subject of his calling in life.

We may therefore conclude that it is always possible to find out what a man is, even if we are not allowed to ask any questions. In some cases we can tell by looking at him, and noticing the outward marks that his trade has left upon him; but in the majority of cases we must wait till we can see him actually plying his trade, whatever it may be.

But, though this talk about work and workmen may have been most interesting in itself, our real reason for going so carefully into the matter has been that we are about to begin an enquiry into the nature and ways of words, and

WORDS ARE LIKE WORKMEN

When a word is used, it always has some particular work to do, and words are classed, like workmen, according to their work. There

fore, if you want to know what a word is, you must first find out what it does.

Perhaps you are wondering whether there are not some "sweeps" or "bakers' men" among the words, which can be identified at a glance.

The answer to this question must be that it all depends on the language to which a word belongs. In English the work that a word does so seldom leaves any distinctive mark, that it is all but true to say that there are no "sweeps" or "bakers' men" at all. On the other hand, in Latin, the words very often carry some mark which puts their usual occupation beyond doubt, even though we happen to light upon them when they are doing nothing. It may surprise you, however, to hear that words observe working hours and have times for rest, and on this point you have a right to some further information.

Suppose we took a dictionary, and cut out all the words separately, each on its own little slip of paper, and then threw them all in a heap on the table. While they were lying there in confusion, the words might be said to be resting. But suppose that a perfectly deaf person came into the room, and that we wished to tell him that dinner was ready. We might talk to him by means of the deaf

and dumb alphabet, if we could remember how to make the letters, but there is another thing we might do which would be just as easy. We might go to the table and sort out of the pile of resting words the squares on which were printed "ready", "is", "dinner", and we might arrange them in a line upon the table.

This is what the deaf person would see:

DINNER IS READY

An idea would be at once conveyed to his mind, and he would know what to expect and how to act.

Well, from the exact moment when the words, which we sorted from the heap, were arranged in such a way as to have this power of conveying an idea, they ceased to rest, and began work; for the work of words consists in acting together in such a way as to convey ideas or impressions. If we shouted a number of words one after the other, which had absolutely no connection, those words would not be working; whereas, if we used the words in such an order as to make sense, they would be quite intelligently employed.

We will now go back a little, and explain, as far as is possible, why, in English, we must

always see what a word is doing, in order to tell what it is; while in Latin, we can generally discover a word's business by merely looking at it, just as we can distinguish a sweep in the street. The real reason lies in an important distinction between words and workmen, which is much more marked in English than it is in Latin, so causing a difference between words in these two languages.

Roughly speaking, each particular workman is capable of doing only one kind of work; practically every man we know may be put down under some one head, and classed either as a joiner, or a blacksmith, or as a member of some other recognized trade or profession. Words, on the other hand, more especially English words, seldom confine themselves to any one particular kind of work. Most English words can do two or three kinds of work; some even four or five. From this you will see quite clearly that, in order to know what a word is on any particular occasion, it will be absolutely essential first to find out what it is doing.

We can illustrate this point by supposing that we did happen to know a man who divided his time between two or three several occupations. Let us say, for example, that

he was a carpenter, a farmer, and an auctioneer. It is plain that we should never be able to say, on any particular day, what that man was, unless we had first been to see how he was employed. If we found him ploughing we should say, "To-day John is a farmer". If, on the following day, we discovered him in the workshop, we should then say that he was a carpenter; while, if some days later we heard him putting up goods for sale to the highest bidder, we should say that, on that day, he was exercising the profession of an auctioneer, and was therefore an auctioneer.

We shall have to treat English words, with their jack-of-all-trades ways, just as we should deal with our carpenter-farmer-auctioneer friend, and shall have to watch them narrowly each time we desire to discover their trade for the time being.

In Latin the words are much more like ordinary workmen, and generally confine themselves to some one particular species of work. Not only is this so, but the particular kinds of work call for particular private uniforms (usually in the shape of endings), which the words doing each special kind of work put on; and as they do not lay aside their endings, even when resting, it is often possible to tell

at a glance what is the trade of a particular Latin word.

From all this it must now be quite plain that, if we wish to know anything about language, which is made up of words, the first thing we must do is to find out all the possible kinds of work that words may be called upon to do.

We shall proceed to find out, a bit at a time, what these separate word-trades are; but before we set out upon our quest there is one consideration which will be of comfort to us. It is this. The trades which men follow are so many and various that a lifetime would prove insufficient to discover them all; but with words it is quite different, the number of separate duties that they are capable of performing is so limited, that anyone who takes the trouble can understand the whole of them in a very short time.

CHAPTER II.—THE WORD-TRADES ARE EIGHT IN NUMBER

NOTE 1.—The examples given below are not suitable for class purposes. They are in many instances more difficult than those which should be used in actual teaching, and are intended to make the working of the definitions clear to the adult mind.

NOTE 2.—The mathematical symbol \therefore for “therefore” has been used throughout this work to save space.

Trade 1

Words whose business it is to be the names of—

- | | | |
|--------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1. Persons; | 2. Places; | 3. Things; |
| 4. Animals; | 5. Qualities; | 6. Actions; |
| 7. Feelings; | | |

are called **Nouns**.

EXAMPLES

Some vague *emotion* of *delight*

In *gazing* up an Alpine *height*,

Some *yearning* towards the *lamps* of night.”

| | | | |
|----------|--|----------------------|-------|
| Emotion | { Is the name of certain mind- feelings } | \therefore it is a | Noun. |
| Delight | Is the name of a feeling ... | \therefore it is a | Noun. |
| Gazing | Is the name of an action ... | \therefore it is a | Noun. |
| Height | { Is the name of a certain kind of place } | \therefore it is a | Noun. |
| Yearning | Is the name of a feeling ... | \therefore it is a | Noun. |
| Lamps | Is the name of a thing ... | \therefore it is a | Noun. |

"Sons of God, and kings of men in utter
nobleness of mind."

| | | | |
|-----------|------------------------------|-----------|-------|
| Nobleness | Is the name of a quality ... | ∴ it is a | Noun. |
|-----------|------------------------------|-----------|-------|

Trade 2

Words whose business it is to stand instead
of nouns are called **Pronouns**.

EXAMPLES

"How like *you* this old satire?" "Nay," *she*
said,

"I loathe *it*: *he* had never kindly heart, &
Nor ever cared to better his own kind,
Who first wrote satire with no pity in *it*."

| | | | |
|-----|---|-----------|----------|
| You | { Stands instead of her name (Margaret) } | ∴ it is a | Pronoun. |
| She | { Stands instead of her name (Margaret) } | ∴ it is a | Pronoun. |
| I | { Stands instead of her name (Margaret) } | ∴ it is a | Pronoun. |
| It | Stands instead of "satire" ... | ∴ it is a | Pronoun. |
| He | Stands for some man's name | ∴ it is a | Pronoun. |
| It | Stands instead of "satire" ... | ∴ it is | Pronoun. |

Trade 3

Words whose business it is to go with
'nouns, to tell you either—

1. What sort; 2. How many; 3. How much; 4. Which; 5. Whose; or 6. To ask which; are called **Adjectives**.

EXAMPLES

"Live *thy* life
Young and old
 Like *yon* oak,
 Bright in spring,
Living gold."

| | | | | |
|--------|---------------------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Thy | Tells "whose" life | ... | ∴ it is an | Adjective. |
| Young | Tells "what sort"... | ... | ∴ it is an | Adjective. |
| Yon | Tells "which" oak | .. | ∴ it is an | Adjective. |
| Living | Tells "what sort of" gold | ∴ it is an | | Adjective. |

"*What* drug can make
 A wither'd palsy cease to shake?"

| | | | | |
|------|-------------------|-----|------------|------------|
| What | Asks "which" drug | ... | ∴ it is an | Adjective. |
|------|-------------------|-----|------------|------------|

Trade 4

"**Doing**" words are called **Verbs**.

NOTE.—This seems a more simple and effective, if not so complete an account of the functions of such words, than the definition given in "How to Tell the Parts of Speech". Of course much further explanation is needed for completeness, and this is given later on in the proper place.

EXAMPLES

"I *slip*, I *slide*, I *gloom*, I *glance*
 Among my skimming swallows,
 I *make* the netted sunbeams *dance*
 Against my sandy shallows."

| | | | |
|--------|-----------------|-----------|-------|
| Slip | Is a doing word | ∴ it is a | Verb. |
| Slide | Is a doing word | ∴ it is a | Verb. |
| Gloom | Is a doing word | ∴ it is a | Verb. |
| Glance | Is a doing word | ∴ it is a | Verb. |
| Make | Is a doing word | ∴ it is a | Verb. |
| Dance | Is a doing word | ∴ it is a | Verb. |

Trade 5

Words whose business it is to tell—

1. How; 2. When; 3. Where a thing is done, are called **Adverbs**.

EXAMPLES

"*Here to-night!* the Hall *to-morrow*, when
 They toll the Chapel bell!
 Shall I hear in one dark room a wailing
 'I have loved thee *well*'?"

| | | | |
|-----------|---|------------|---------|
| Here | { Tells where the thing happened ... } | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
| To-night | { Tells when the thing happened ... } | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
| To-morrow | { Tells when the thing will happen ... } | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
| Well | Tells how he loved .. | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |

7608

Trade 6

Little words whose business it is to be capable of standing before one noun or pronoun, to show its relation with another noun or pronoun, are called **Prepositions**.

NOTE.—This is a practical definition which does assign a definite function. It is easy to show that relations of time and place are those chiefly intended.

In such sentences as “John hit Thomas”, a boy never says that “hit” shows a relation, for he knows at once that “hit” is a “doing” word. The definition given in “How to Tell the Parts of Speech” seems weak, for it does not assign a definite function which can be readily grasped by boys, and savours of trickery.

For a fuller consideration of this part of speech see the Appendix—On Phrases.

EXAMPLES

“O young Mariner,
You *from* the haven
Under the sea-cliff,
You that are watching
The gray Magician
With eyes *of* wonder.”

| | | | |
|-------|---|-----------|--------------|
| From | { Stands before “haven” and shows the relation between “Mariner” and “haven” (“Mariner from haven”) ... } | ∴ it is a | Preposition. |
| Under | { Stands before “sea-cliff” and shows its relation with “haven” (“haven under sea-cliff”) ... } | ∴ it is a | Preposition. |

S. C. E. R. T. W. B. LIBRARY

Date

Acce. No.

9503



| | | | |
|----|---|-----------|--------------|
| Of | { Stands before "wonder" and shows its relation to "eyes" ("eyes of wonder") ... } | ∴ it is a | Preposition. |
|----|---|-----------|--------------|

For the reason why "with" is here omitted see page 33, and the Appendix on Phrases.

Trade 7

Words whose business it is to join clauses or sentences, are called **Conjunctions**.

NOTE.—This is by far the hardest part of speech, as it requires considerable clearness of thought to tell, in some cases, which clauses are connected by a particular word.

No further definition, however, is needed; common sense and practice will do the rest. Boys will soon pick up the idea of "putting in" or "understanding" any words that may be necessary to complete the clauses.

EXAMPLES

"So Lord Howard past away with five ships³⁰
of war that day,
Till he melted³¹ like a cloud in the silent³²
summer heaven;
But Sir Richard bore in hand all³³ his sick
men from the land,
Very carefully *and* slow,³⁴
Men of Bideford in Devon,
And we laid them on the ballast down
below."

| | | | |
|------|---|-----------|--------------|
| Till | Joins these two clauses: (1) "Lord Howard past away", (2) "he melted in the heaven" ... | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |
| But | Joins these two clauses: (1) "Lord Howard past away", (2) "Sir Richard bore his sick men from the land" ... | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |
| And | Joins these clauses: (1) "Sir Richard bore his sick men very carefully", (2) ("Sir Richard bore his sick men very) slow" ... | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |
| And | Joins these two clauses: (1) "Sir Richard bore all his sick men from the land", (2) "We laid them on the ballast down below" ... | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |

Trade 8

Solitary little words whose business it is to express sudden feelings, are called **Interjections**.

NOTE.—The word "solitary" is introduced because it lends distinctness to the definition, and conveys the particular notion that such words are apart from the clause structure. They may be used by themselves and be the only sound uttered; they may have other words all round them: in both cases they are solitary. A man may be solitary in the midst of a crowd.

EXAMPLES

"Then loudly cried the bold Sir Bedivere:
Ah! my Lord Arthur, whither shall I go?
 Where shall I hide my forehead and my
 eyes?
 For now I see the true old times are dead."

| | | | |
|----|--|------------|---------------|
| Ah | { Expresses a sudden feeling of despair, and has no con- nection with the rest of the sentence } | ∴ it is an | Interjection. |
|----|--|------------|---------------|

"O that I were beside her now!
 O will she answer if I call?"

| | | | |
|---|---|------------|---------------|
| O | { Expresses a sudden feeling of longing, and has no connection with any other word in the sentence ... } | ∴ it is an | Interjection. |
| O | { Expresses a sudden feeling of doubt, and has no con- nection with any other word in the sentence ... } | ∴ it is an | Interjection. |

"*Alas*, I was so broad of girth,
 I could not be embraced."

| | | | |
|------|--|------------|---------------|
| Alas | { Expresses a sudden feeling of sorrow, and has no con- nection with any other word in the sentence ... } | ∴ it is an | Interjection. |
|------|--|------------|---------------|

CHAPTER III.—THE TRICKS OF THE WORD-TRADES

In the last chapter we have given the eight plain, straightforward "word-trades", but the subject is not yet exhausted.

There is a well-known saying that every trade has its tricks, and in a sense this may be held to be true of the "word-trades" no less than of the human trades.

We do not mean to imply that the "word-workmen" are in any sense dishonest, but rather to indicate that a number of the minor duties that words perform are not at all times easy to distinguish, and may be classed as the "tricks" of the word-trades.

It will be useful to go through the "word-trades" once again, and to consider in detail all such minor duties and subdivisions of duties as fall to the share of each. The heading, which for the sake of distinction we have given to the whole of this chapter, is "The tricks of the trades".

Noun-Trade

Add to the name list, "or anything else which wants a name".

EXAMPLES

“Ah! when shall all men’s *good*
Be each man’s *rule*, and universal *Peace*
Lie like a shaft of light across the land,
And like a lane of beams athwart the sea,
Thro’ all the *circle* of the golden *year*?”

The words in italics are all names which cannot be strictly brought under any of the seven heads given in the “trades”.

Adjective-Trade

1. The adjectives that tell “which” are called **Demonstrative**.

2. The adjectives that tell “whose” are called **Possessive**.

3. The adjectives that “ask which” are called **Interrogative**.

4. The adjectives that tell exactly “how many” (*e.g.* “five”) are called **Numeral**.

NOTE.—Examples are given below, as it is more convenient to consider these terms along with the similar ones employed in the case of pronouns.

Pronoun-Trade

There are six kinds of pronouns:—

1. Personal; 2. Possessive; 3. Demonstrative;
4. Interrogative; 5. Relative;
6. Reflexive.

NOTE. In most grammars they give two more kinds: (7) "Indefinite", (8) "Distributive", of which the following words are examples: "anybody", "anything", "everybody", "everything", "none". I prefer to leave these entirely out and mention them later. Many of these pronouns are in English compounded of two words, which can quite well be taken apart, each with its own function, as a "noun" and an "adjective". If we begin to call such words pronouns at this stage, distinctness may be lost.

1. Personal pronouns stand instead of the names of persons and things.

2. Possessive pronouns stand instead of a noun with a possessive adjective.

EXAMPLES

"O my cousin, shallow-hearted! O my Amy, mine no more."

| | | | |
|------|------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|
| My | Tells whose cousin ... | ∴ it is a | { Possessive Adjective. |
| Mine | Stands for "my Amy" | ∴ it is a | { Possessive Pronoun. |

3. There are certain words, "this", "these",

"that", "those", which can be either demonstrative adjectives or demonstrative pronouns.

They are adjectives, if there is a noun with them, or if you can put a noun in with them.

They are demonstrative pronouns, if you cannot put a noun in with them, but you can put a noun instead of them.

EXAMPLES

"Quick answer'd Lilia, 'There are thousands
now

Such women, but convention beats them
down;

It is but bringing up: no more than *that*."

| | | | |
|------|--|-------------|-----------------------------|
| That | { There is no noun that you can put in with "that". If you said "that bringing up", it would not give the right sense; on the other hand, you can put "bring- ing up" instead of "that", and give just the right sense } | ∴ that is a | { Demonstrative Pronoun. |
|------|--|-------------|-----------------------------|

"*That's* your light way."

| | | | |
|------|---|-------------|-------------------------------|
| That | { You can put in "way" with "that", "that (way) is your light way" ... } | ∴ that is a | { Demonstrative Adjective. |
|------|---|-------------|-------------------------------|

4. The words which may be relative pronouns are: "who", "which", "whom", "whose", "that", and "what" when it means "that which".

The following tests will enable you to see whether, in any particular case, such words are relative pronouns or not:—

Test I.—Can you miss out the clause, in which the word in question occurs, and leave enough to make sense?

Test II.—Can you repeat after the word (changing it into "which" if necessary) some noun that has gone before?

This noun that you repeat is called the antecedent.

If to both these test questions the answer is "yes", then the word is a relative pronoun.

NOTE.—Where the relative has been taught in this way, with the repeated antecedent, it has been found that boys can manage the gender, number, and case of the Latin relative without any rules.

N.B.—There are some other words which occasionally have the force of relative pronouns, but these will be recognized as time goes on without any special notice here.

EXAMPLES

"Yet so my path was clear
To win the sister. *Whom* I woo'd and won."

| | | | |
|------|--|----------------------------|------------------------|
| Whom | { Test (1): The "whom" clause can be omitted, and perfect sense remains. Test (2): It is possible to say "to win the sister. Which (sister) I woo'd and won" } | { ∴ "whom" } is a ... } | { Relative Pronoun. |
|------|--|----------------------------|------------------------|

"Was not one of the two at her side
This new-made lord, *whose* splendour plucks
The slavish hat from the villager's head?"

| | | | |
|-------|--|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| Whose | { Test (1): The clause "whose ... head" can be omitted, leaving perfect sense. Test (2): It is possible to say "this new-made lord, of which (lord) the splendour ... head" ... } | { ∴ "whose" } is a ... } | { Relative Pronoun. |
|-------|--|-----------------------------|------------------------|

5. Interrogative pronouns stand instead of a noun and an interrogative adjective.

EXAMPLES

"No rose but one—*what* other rose had I?"

| | | | |
|------|---|------------|-------------------------------|
| What | { Stands before "rose", and asks "which rose" ... } | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Adjective. |
|------|---|------------|-------------------------------|

"...for *who* beside your hearths
Can take her place?"

| | | | |
|-----|--|------------|-----------------------------|
| Who | { Stands instead of "which woman", asking a question } | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Pronoun. |
|-----|--|------------|-----------------------------|

6. The following words are reflexive pronouns:—Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

They are called reflexive, because they mean the same person as the subject, they "bend back" to the subject. (Latin, *reflecto*, I bend back.)

EXAMPLE

"Petula at she spoke, and at *herself* she laughed."

| | | | |
|---------|--|-----------|-------------------------|
| Herself | { Stands for Lilia, which is subject of the sen- tence, and <i>herself</i> is a word that can be a re- flexive pronoun ... } | ∴ it is a | { Reflexive Pronoun. |
|---------|--|-----------|-------------------------|

Adverb-Trade

To the adverbs add words which tell—

- (1) How far the thing is true.
- (2) How often.
- (3) How much.

The words how? when? where? why? whither? whence? are themselves called adverbs, the word "interrogative" being used to distinguish them.

Sometimes adverbs are used with adjectives.

Sometimes adverbs are used with other adverbs.

EXAMPLES

"I took my leave, for it was *nearly* noon."

| | | | |
|--------|--|------------|---------|
| Nearly | { Tells how far the statement "it was noon" is true } | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
|--------|--|------------|---------|

"And the cock hath sung beneath the thatch
Twice or *thrice* his roundelay."

| | | | |
|--------|-------------------|------------|---------|
| Twice | Tells "how often" | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
| Thrice | Tells "how often" | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |

"thus he grew
Tolerant of what he *half* disdained."

| | | | |
|------|--|------------|---------|
| Half | { Tells "how much" he disdained ... } | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
|------|--|------------|---------|

"Where is my loved one? Wherefore do ye weep?"

| | | | |
|-----------|---------------|------------|----------------------------|
| Where | Asks "where?" | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Adverb. |
| Wherefore | Asks "why?" | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Adverb. |

"What name hast thou
That ridest here *so* madly and so hard?"

| | | | |
|----|---|--------------|---------|
| So | { Tells "how" madly, and "madly" is an adverb ... } | ∴ "so" is an | Adverb. |
|----|---|--------------|---------|

Preposition-Trade

In the case of prepositions, the first noun is sometimes left out, and cannot readily be understood.

In this case, it will be necessary to see whether the word you suspect of being a preposition, ever could show "a relation". If

you find it could, proceed as follows. Suppose "in" to be the word in question. The word "in" stands in front of the noun or pronoun X. It is a word which can show a relation (*e.g.*,

"boy in river"),

it is a preposition, though the first noun is missing.

N.B.—For a further consideration of prepositions see Appendix.

Conjunction-Trade

Sometimes conjunctions go in pairs; *e.g.*:

"either"....."or"

"because"....."therefore".

When this is so, you will generally find that the first one can be missed out. This proves that it is the second one which does the real work. You can then say that the first one is preparing the way for the second, or is an assistant conjunction in joining the same clauses.

EXAMPLES

"Cry, faint not; *either* Truth is born
Beyond the polar gleam forlorn,
Or in the gateways of the morn."

| | | | |
|--------|--|------------|--|
| Or | Joins these two clauses: (1) "Truth is born beyond.. forlorn", (2) (Truth is born) in... the morn" | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |
| Either | Plainly "either" belongs to "or", and they are engaged in one piece of work, and "or" has already joined the clauses, ∴ "either" must be helping it | ∴ it is an | { Assistant Conjunction to "or". |

Some conjunctions prefer to come second in their clause. They are like people who are shy about coming into a room, and prefer somebody else to go first. For the sake of distinction, we might call them "bashful" conjunctions.

There are some conjunctions, also, which do not mind whether they come first or second in the clause.

EXAMPLES

"he fear'd

To send abroad a shrill and terrible cry,

He *therefore* turning softly like a thief,

Crept to the gate, and open'd it, and closed."

| | | | |
|-----------|--|-----------|--------------|
| Therefore | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Joins these two} \\ \text{clauses: (1) "He} \\ \text{fear'd ... cry", (2)} \\ \text{"He ... crept to} \\ \text{the gate" ...} \end{array} \right.$ | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |
|-----------|--|-----------|--------------|

N.B.—The position of a conjunction is no guide to the clauses which it joins. Only the sense can show which these clauses are. It is for this reason that conjunctions are the most difficult part of speech, and give the best exercise of the logical faculty.

NOTE.—What has been stated on the conjunctions really covers all the ground, but a special note is perhaps needful on some special words.

The words "how", "when", "where", "why", "whither", "whence", are often put down as interrogative adverbs, whether they occur in direct or in indirect questions. Experience seems to prove that this will lead to confusion. It is easy for a boy to see that these words are question words in direct speech, but when they are used indirectly the question force is quite secondary to the conjunctival. Further, it is at this stage quite impossible, and inadvisable even if it were possible, to enter upon the question of direct and indirect speech. It is quite easy, however, to teach that when these words ask questions they are inter-

rogative adverbs, and when they join clauses they are conjunctions. *E.g.*—

1. When shall you start?

“When” is the question “when”, therefore it is an interrogative adverb.

2. I wonder when you will start.

“When” joins the clauses: (1) I wonder, (2) you will start, therefore it is a conjunction.

Interjection-Trade

Interjections sometimes do not express feelings, but merely call attention.

EXAMPLES

“they swerved and brake
Flying, and Arthur called to stay the brands
That hacked among the flyers, ‘*Ho!* they yield!’”

| | | | |
|-----|---|------------|---------------|
| Ho! | Has no connection with any other word in the sentence, and calls the attention of Arthur's men to his remark “they yield” | ∴ it is an | Interjection. |
|-----|---|------------|---------------|

Verb-Trade

There are some verbs whose duty it is to help other verbs to make their tenses. These verbs are called auxiliary, because *auxilium* is the Latin for help.

The chief auxiliaries are the verbs, (1) to be;

(2) to have; (3) to do; but all these verbs can also be used as independent verbs.

1. The verb "to be" can be used in three different ways:

(a) When the meaning is "to exist".

(b) As an auxiliary verb, when it helps another verb to form its tenses.

(c) With a complement.

EXAMPLES

"Thou *art* so full of misery

Were it not better not *to be*?"

| | | | |
|---------|--|-------------|---|
| Art | { (1) "Art" is not helping a verb to make a tense. (2) It does not mean "exist", therefore it must be used with a complement. <i>Ques.</i> : "Art what?" <i>Ans.</i> : "Art full" ... } | ∴ it is not | { an Auxiliary, but an Indep. Verb with a complement. } |
| Were | { (1) Is not helping a verb to make a tense. (2) Does not mean "existed", therefore it must be used with a complement. <i>Ques.</i> : "Were what?" <i>Ans.</i> : "Were better" ... } | ∴ it is not | { an Auxiliary, but an Indep. Verb with a complement. } |
| (To) be | { (1) Is not helping a verb to make a tense. (2) Does mean "exist", for we can say, "Were it not better not to exist?" ... } | ∴ it is not | { an Auxiliary, but an Indep. Verb meaning "exist". } |

! "Deep on the convent roof the snows
Are sparkling to the moon."

| | | | |
|-----|---|------------|----------------------|
| Are | { Is helping the verb "sparkle" to make its present tense ... } | ∴ it is an | { Auxiliary Verb. |
|-----|---|------------|----------------------|

2. The verb "to have" is an independent verb when it means "to possess". It is an auxiliary when it helps another verb to form its tenses.

EXAMPLES

"We *have* children, we *have* wives,
And the Lord *hath* spared our lives."

| | | | |
|------|---|------------|------------------------|
| Have | Means "possess" ... | ∴ it is an | { Independent Verb. |
| Hath | { Is helping the verb "spare" to make its perfect tense } | ∴ it is an | { Auxiliary Verb. |

3. The verb "to do" is an independent verb when it means "to perform", "finish", "accomplish". It is an auxiliary when it helps another verb to form its tenses.

EXAMPLES

"Oh Master, *do* ye love my tender rhyme?"

| | | | |
|----|---|------------|----------------------|
| Do | { Is helping the verb "love" to make its present tense .. } | ∴ it is an | { Auxiliary Verb. |
|----|---|------------|----------------------|

"I have only *done* my duty as a man is bound
to do."

| | | | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|------------------------|
| Done | Means "performed" | ∴ it is an | { Independent Verb. |
| To do | Means "to perform" | ∴ it is an | { Independent Verb. |

There are some other verbs which take a complement besides the verb "to be". The chief of these are the verbs "to seem" and "to become".

Such verbs are in themselves like empty cups.

A cup is quite useless until something is put into it.

There is no limit to the number of things which may at different times be put into a cup. You may use it to hold tea, water, milk, oil, beer, sugar, and even nails or pins. When once the cup holds something it becomes useful. These things which a cup holds, fill it up

and might be called its complements, for the word complement means filling up.¹

In like manner these verbs mentioned above have absolutely no meaning or use until a word is added to fill the meaning up. This word is called a complement. *E.g.*:

"We are.....", "They became.....",

convey absolutely no meaning; we wait in expectation of a "filling up".

Any of the following words will supply the lack:—glad, tired, pirates, tinkers, soldiers, sailors.

CHAPTER IV.—ON THE GROUND COVERED UP TO THIS POINT, TOGETHER WITH SOME ADDITIONAL MATTER

• If we left the definitions, given in the last two chapters, standing alone without further explanation, we should be in grave danger of being totally misunderstood. Indeed, what we have written might be used in the good old rote way, and unfortunate boys might be set down to absorb the "functions of words" from the printed page, as so much repetition.

• ¹ Cf. "ship's complement".

To avoid such dreadful possibilities, we may, perhaps, be allowed a word here on what, though not actually stated, has been implied in all we have so far said.

We hope we have made it clear, in our preface, that this book is not intended for small boys, but for the teachers of small boys. The small boy will never learn English grammar out of a book, and the teacher who needs all the details of lessons supplied, is not likely to gain anything from this or any other work. Our wish is to be suggestive, and to give a consistent and comprehensive framework which the individual teacher may clothe with detail as seems best to him.

It is sometimes said, that the best method of learning to swim is to be thrown into the water, and left to struggle out, as needs must, and nature allows. If the same principle applies to teaching, then the initiation of the present writer was of the best, for he was taken into a class-room and told to teach the boys Latin. The boys were little boys, most of them just from home, and the mental gap between them and the teacher seemed a gulf impassable.

Of course, it turned out that for most of them the simplest grammatical terms bore no

meaning whatever, and that, though they had become acquainted with certain words in the Latin grammar as "nouns", "verbs", "adjectives", and so forth, yet they had no understanding of the real differences in the word functions.

After a term or two of floundering on the part of the teacher, it became clear to him that, though the school routine made no adequate provision for English grammar, some English grammar teaching there must be, if the hours spent on Latin were not to be, in a great measure, wasted. But the necessary time had to be filched from Latin hours, and some years were spent in the endeavour to discover the effective minimum of such teaching. Each term brought some new or additional experience, and in the end, the whole body of what he taught came to be summed up in the definitions given above.

This desire to find the smallest bulk of English teaching which would render the learning of Latin profitable was the ultimate cause and origin of the definitions in their present form, and their actual birthplace was the class room. Each separate definition was the result of much previous joint inquiry on the part of the class and teacher. A partier-

ship of this kind is essential, and no matter how often the teacher may have been over the same ground, yet each set of boys with whom he deals must feel that they and he are pioneers.

If the central idea of English grammar teaching, or indeed of all teaching, had to be put into one word, the word **Discovery** would perhaps be nearer the mark than any other. Teacher and taught must together set out on an exploration into the land of words, or numbers, or history, or whatever it may be. The teacher should be leader of the expedition, but so far as possible hardly more than *primus inter pares*. Moreover, he should be a self-effacing leader; he should not do all the road-clearing with his own hands, but should let his followers take their turn with the spade and axe. Above all, when a find is on the point of being made, he must stand aside and allow the glory of actual discovery to fall to the ranks.

By such a system of joint exploration the functions of words, as given in the definitions, were originally determined, and the actual wording of the definition marked only the final step in each stage of the advance. In such final wording, no term or expression was

used which had not been already encountered, and of which the exact meaning was not already fully appreciated.

All of this goes to show that what we have not said in the text, bulks a great deal bigger than what we have in actual fact stated, and that what we have said, implies a knowledge of a great many things not specifically mentioned.

The following list shows what some of these things are:—

- (1) Verb Tenses. (2) Subject and Object.
- 3) The Simple Sentence. 4 The Clause.
- 5) Incomplete Clauses, and the "understanding" of words to finish them.

We hope that the all-important question of the mental attitude to be adopted has now been made clear. This once settled, we may turn to matters of minor method, and consider some of the devices used.

In actual practice, the division made into "tradès" and "tricks of the trades", has proved most helpful. To some the use of such terms may seem to be "below the dignity of the occasion. There may be some truth in the objection, but considerations of the kind should not be pushed to extremes, when by a slight

relaxation we may gain a useful end with **rapidity and ease.**

Our text and principle throw about us the "Words are like workmen". From this the ideas of "trades" and "tricks of trades" naturally spring, they are ideas that "stick" and they cover a very useful division. The "trades" are the first obvious functions of words. These must be thoroughly mastered and applied to words in selected sentences for some considerable time before the special or minor functions of the "tricks" are considered at all. Indeed, it is only by some such distinction, that the force of intellectual mastery on the part of the boy, which alone it is so essential to get, can be nourished and maintained.

As an example of what we mean let us take the case of adverbs. The possible functions of the adverb are such a vast number that if He will enjoy this kind of work, to tell "how," "when," or "where" a given thing was done, he will have a sense of increased power and mastery in doing so. But if after telling as far as this goes at once tell him of all the other things which adverbs can do and wind up by saying that "adverbs sometimes go with adjectives," he will get bewildered, hopeless, helpless.

A word now as to the time which experience has proved to be necessary for covering the ground traced up to this point. It will be found that with a class ranging in age from eight to ten years, three quarters of an hour a day, for five days a week, during a term of twelve weeks, will be sufficient. After this practice in connection the functions of particular words for a quarter of an hour a day for seven terms, will be enough to consolidate and extend the knowledge and power that have been gained. Not a bad point at this stage is to give out a small sentence every day in which the functions of two words have to be discovered and written down as the first day. The words for ten terms may make a fully sufficient head for exercise at the end and they have this advantage that the lines are already marked and so the necessary thought can be given at any moment of the day, all the subject matter being already in the memory.

It is not pretended that at the end of any given period boys should be able to tell the 'work' of any word in any sentence. In the exact definition of such things there is often room for much debate and discussion. But they should at any rate after a year's practice have thoroughly assimilated the idea of word

functions, and they should have at hand a working knowledge of all functions possible. This will enable them to determine the nature of at least nine out of every ten words that they come across in English.

At some period, after the first term, to be determined at the teacher's discretion, it will be found useful to concentrate attention on those words which have a marked plurality of functions. Such a course will reduce possible confusion to a minimum. Special notes on such words are given below.

NOTES

I

Words ending in "ing" may be—

- (1) Verbs.
- (2) Nouns.
- (3) Adjectives.

Of these the adjectives are by far the hardest to detect. In any particular case proceed as follows. Find out whether the word is either a verb or a noun. If it is neither of these, then it must be an adjective.

(1) It is easy to tell whether the word is acting as a verb, for in that case it will be

provided with (a) an auxiliary to help it to form a tense, and (b) a subject.

(2) If the word is not a verb, see whether you can put "the" in front of it without making nonsense. If you can, the word is the name of an action and therefore is a noun.

(3) If the word is neither a verb nor a noun, then it must be an adjective. When this is the case, it will always be possible to change the order of the words so as to get the word ending in "ing" before some noun or pronoun to which it belongs; *e.g.*:

(1) We saw them sitting in the sun,
(becomes)

We saw the sitting (-in-the-sun) them.

(2) The bull came charging down,
(becomes)

The charging-down-bull came.

EXAMPLES

"We crossed the street and gained a petty
mound

Beyond it, whence we saw the lights and
heard

The voices *murmuring*."

| | | | |
|-----------|---|---------------|------------|
| Murmuring | (1) There is no auxiliary with "murmuring" ... | ∴ it is not a | Verb |
| | (2) It would make nonsense to put "the" in front of it ... | ∴ it is not a | Noun. |
| | (3) But you can say "heard the murmuring voices", ∴ "murmuring" tells what kind of voices ... | ∴ it is an | Adjective. |

"And he that next inherited the tale
Half *turning* to the broken statue said."

| | | | |
|---------|---|---------------|------------|
| Turning | (1) There are no auxiliaries with "turning" .. | ∴ it is not a | Verb. |
| | (2) It makes nonsense to put "the" before "turning" | ∴ it is not a | Noun. |
| | (3) You can say "And (the - half - turning - to - the - statue) man said" | ∴ it is an | Adjective. |

"I would the old God of war himself were
dead,
Forgotten, *rusting* on his iron hills."

| | | | |
|---------|---|---------------------------|-------|
| Rusting | { The auxiliary "were" is understood with "rusting" ... } | { ∴ "rust- ing" is a } | Verb. |
|---------|---|---------------------------|-------|

"thus I won
Your mother, a good mother, a good wife,
Worth *winning*."

| | | | |
|---------|---|----------------------|-------|
| Winning | (1) There is no auxiliary with "winning" ... | ∴ it is not a | Verb. |
| | (2) It makes perfect sense to say "worth the winning", ∴ "winning" is the name of an action ... | { ∴ "winning" is a } | Noun. |

"Nay, but thee," I said,
"From yearlong *poring* on thy pictured eyes
Ere seen, I loved."

| | | | |
|--------|---|---------------|-------|
| Poring | (1) There is no auxiliary with "poring" ... | ∴ it is not a | Verb. |
| | (2) It is perfectly sensible to say "from the poring on thy eyes I loved thee", ∴ "poring" is the name of an action ... | ∴ it is a | Noun. |

II

"That" can do four different sorts of work:

- (1) Demonstrative Adjective-work.
- (2) Demonstrative Pronoun-work.

(3) Relative Pronoun-work.

(4) Conjunction-work.

EXAMPLES

"That's your light way."

| | | | |
|------|--|-----------|-------------------------------|
| That | { You can say "That (way) is your light way" ... } | ∴ it is a | { Demonstrative Adjective. |
|------|--|-----------|-------------------------------|

"It is but bringing up; no more than that."

| | | | |
|------|--|-----------|-----------------------------|
| That | { Stands instead of "bringing up" ... } | ∴ it is a | { Demonstrative Pronoun. |
|------|--|-----------|-----------------------------|

*"And here she shook aside
The hand that played the patron with her
curls."*

| | | | |
|------|--|-----------|------------------------|
| That | { (1) You can omit the clause from "that" to "curls", and leave perfect sense. (2) You can say "she shook aside the hand, which (hand) played the patron with her curls" ... } | ∴ it is a | { Relative Pronoun. |
|------|--|-----------|------------------------|

"O I wish

That I were some great princess!"

| | | | |
|------|---|-----------|--------------|
| That | { Join these two clauses: (1) "O I wish", (2) "I were some great princess" ... } | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |
|------|---|-----------|--------------|

III

"WHAT"

I. When "what" stands for "which thing", or "what thing", or "which", with some noun implied though not expressed, it is doing the work of an Interrogative Pronoun.

In such cases, too, it will always be found to be acting as subject, object, or in some other noun-place.

EXAMPLES

"*What* know I of these things?"

| | | | |
|------|--|------------|-----------------------------|
| What | { You can say "what thing" instead of "what" ... } | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Pronoun. |
|------|--|------------|-----------------------------|

"if I prove

Your knight, and fight your battles, *what* for me?"

| | | | |
|------|--|--------------------|----------------------------|
| What | { You can supply the word "reward" with "what", and this word is nowhere in the text } | { ∴ "what" is an } | { Interrogative Pronoun. } |
|------|--|--------------------|----------------------------|

" Ah! *what* might that man not deserve of me
Who gave me back my child?"

| | | | |
|------|--|--------------------|----------------------------|
| What | { You can supply the word "reward" with "what", and this word is nowhere in the text } | { ∴ "what" is an } | { Interrogative Pronoun. } |
|------|--|--------------------|----------------------------|

2. When "what" is used with a noun, or when a noun actually in the text can be supplied with it, it is doing the work of an Interrogative Adjective.

EXAMPLES

"And thus (*what* other way was left) I came."

| | | | |
|------|--|----------------|------------------------------|
| What | { Asks "which way", and "way" is in the text } | { ∴ it is an } | { Interrogative Adjective. } |
|------|--|----------------|------------------------------|

"*What* were those fancies?"

| | | | |
|------|--|-----------------------|--|
| What | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{You can supply "fancies" with "what",} \\ \text{and "fancies" is actually} \\ \text{in the text,} \\ \therefore \text{"what" asks} \\ \text{"which fancies?" ...} \end{array} \right.$ | \therefore it is an | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Interrogative} \\ \text{Adjective.} \end{array} \right.$ |
|------|--|-----------------------|--|

3. When "what" means "the thing which", or "that which", it is a Relative Pronoun, including its antecedent in itself.

EXAMPLE

"And after feigning pique at, *what* she called
The raillery, or grotesque, or false sublime,
Like one that wishes at a dance to change
The music—clapt her hands and cried for
war."

| | | | |
|------|---|----------------------|---|
| What | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{May be changed to "that"} \\ \text{which", also the first test} \\ \text{for a relative will answer} \end{array} \right.$ | \therefore it is a | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Relative} \\ \text{Pronoun.} \end{array} \right.$ |
|------|---|----------------------|---|

4. When "what" means "to what extent", or "how much", it is doing Adverb-work.

EXAMPLES

"I want her love:

What were I nigher this, although we dashed
Your cities into shards with catapults?"

| | | | |
|------|-----------------------------------|------------|----------------------------|
| What | { Asks "how much" nigher ... } | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Adverb. |
|------|-----------------------------------|------------|----------------------------|

"For *what* are men better than sheep or goats
If knowing God they lift not hands in
prayer?"

| | | | |
|------|-----------------------------------|------------|----------------------------|
| What | { Asks "how much" better ... } | ∴ it is an | { Interrogative Adverb. |
|------|-----------------------------------|------------|----------------------------|

IV

"as.....as".

When the word "as" occurs twice over, you can always put "so", telling "how", for the first one; this enables you to find more easily what work the "as" does.

EXAMPLE

"Whether the vintage, yet unkept,
Had relish fiery-new,

Or elbow-deep in sawdust, slept
As old *as* Waterloo."

| | | | |
|----------|---|------------|--------------|
| As (=so) | Tells "how" old ... | ∴ it is an | Adverb. |
| As ... | <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">{</div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> Joins these two clauses: (1) "The vintage slept as old", (2) "Water- loo is" ... </div> </div> | ∴ it is a | Conjunction. |

N.B.—It is often of the greatest assistance in finding out the exact meaning, and so the exact work of a word, to see whether it could not be represented by some other word giving the same meaning.

The "to" sign of the infinitive can always be disregarded as a separate word, and be taken as part of the verb.

The Articles are also best disregarded.

It may be objected that some of these tests are rather "tricky", and that we are losing sight of "function" altogether. There is some truth in the objection, and such tests must be used with discretion. They are not intended to supplant the consideration of function, but to reinforce the doubting mind unable to decide between two possible functions. Boys do have a difficulty with such words as those with which we have just dealt, even when they have quite grasped the idea of word functions. They then want some little additional help.

BOOK II

THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE

Section I

When we speak or write, the words we use make sense, and therefore arrange themselves in sentences; for a sentence is a collection of words that makes sense.

The shortest sentence which we could possibly make would consist of one word. But though there might only be one word used, another would always be understood, so it was not quite foolish to call all sentences collections of words.

This one-worded sentence is the kind of sentence we use in giving orders; *e.g.* "Come", "try", "go", might all be sentences.

The word understood in each case would be either "thou" or "you". We do not put "thou" or "you" in unless we wish to be very emphatic, or to leave absolutely no room for doubt as to the person addressed. But these **commanding** or **imperative** sentences form only

a small proportion of the sentences which we use in everyday intercourse, and the shortest sentences, which we have need of in an ordinary way, consist of two words: *e.g.* (1) Birds fly; (2) I went.

In a two-word sentence, you will always find that one of the words is a **verb**. The other will always be a **noun** or a **pronoun** acting as **subject** of that verb.

You might try as hard as you liked, but you would find it quite impossible to say anything sensible without using a **verb** and a **subject**. These two things are the essential elements of a **sentence**. There may or there may not be other words, but these two we must have. In the case of the one-word sentences, of which we talked above, the one word is the verb, and the word which we have said is always understood, is the subject.

If the verb in any given sentence be transitive, need for an object will arise, which will lengthen the sentence to three words. There may also be words telling "how", "when", or "where" the thing was done; there may be words to show of what sort the subject or the object is; but all these words are of secondary importance. That this is actually

the case, we can easily convince ourselves by the following experiment.

If we take a page of a story and, after underlining all the subjects and verbs, read just these underlined words, we shall find that we can form some idea of the story. If we underline the objects as well, and read the verbs, subjects, and objects, we shall have a still clearer notion.

On the other hand, we shall find that, if we omit the verbs and the subjects and read only the remaining words, we get no kind of rational meaning; and this, though the words read will be much more numerous than they were in the first case.

When a sentence consists of one verb with its subject and any other words that the sense may require, it is called a **simple sentence**.

It would be only a very uneducated and unthinking people, however, who could express the whole of their ideas and feelings by means of simple sentences. More highly developed and intelligent races need a more subtle vehicle of thought, and this they find in the **complex** or the **compound** sentence, the natures of which we will attempt to explain in the next section.

NOTE.—A question of terms arises here. The English grammars classify as follows:—

- (1) The simple sentence, containing one clause.
- (2) The compound sentence, containing two or more co-ordinate clauses.
- (3) The complex sentence, containing principal and subordinate clauses.

On the other hand, in Latin a sentence containing subordinate clauses is often called compound. The name we give a thing, however, does not matter much so long as its essential nature is grasped.

Section II

When first we began to talk about words, we said that they were like workmen. We said this, because each time any word is employed it has some particular work to perform. Now we can most easily explain what the complex sentence is, by comparing it to a number of workmen engaged on some one single piece of work. For the sake of being definite, let us suppose that our workmen are engaged upon a railway bridge.

The first thing we notice is, that the men do not work at hap-hazard—one here and one there—but in gangs. There is a gang of masons finishing off the stone piers, on which the ironwork rests; a gang of riveters is fixing the iron stays and braces; a gang of navvies

is wheeling ballast to one end of the bridge; and a gang of plate-layers is putting down rails at the other; perhaps, even, a gang of painters has just turned up to begin the painting. Yet all these workmen, in all these gangs, are all engaged on different parts of one and the same work. They work in gangs, and each gang does its special part towards making what we, when the work is complete, shall call a railway bridge. Now, just in the same way, a complex sentence is made up of a number of word-workmen divided into gangs. Each gang has a special work to do, but all the gangs together only accomplish a single work, which is the making of one complete bit of sense. There is, however, an important difference between the men-workers and the word-workers.

Among the bridge-makers you would not be able to pick out any particular gang, and say, "This is the most important gang, all the rest are only of inferior account". If we put aside the painters, there is not a single gang that we could do without: the work of each one is almost equally necessary for the perfecting of the bridge. But in the case of the complex sentence there is always one "word-gang", which is more important than all the

rest. The other gangs might cease working, yet if the important gang, or gangs, were left, you would still have a very good inkling of the sense. True, the meaning would not be so complete and clear as when all the gangs were working together, but the framework of sense would stand up perfectly strong and whole.

It is time now to explain what we mean by a "word-gang".

A word-gang is what grammars generally call a clause.

The essential mark of a clause is that, like the simple sentence, it contains a verb and a subject; yet, unlike the simple sentence, it is under no obligation to make complete sense.

An example of a complex sentence will help to clear our minds; *e.g.*:

The man, who seemed tired, paused, as though he were in doubt, when he came to the cross roads.

This sentence conveys one complete picture and idea—in fact, it is one complete bit of sense. Yet, if you examine the separate words, you will find no less than four verbs with subjects belonging to them. Each of these verbs denotes a separate clause, and a

little thought will enable you to separate these clauses, putting with each verb and subject the words that belong to it, thus:—

1. The man paused,
2. Who (= which man) seemed tired,
3. As though he were in doubt,
4. When he came to the cross roads.

Here we have our four gangs of working words, or clauses, set down separately and distinctly. Let us next read each clause through by itself.

You will notice one thing immediately—namely, that there is only one of the four clauses which will make complete sense; the other clauses make a kind of sense, but leave you in want of further explanation. It is this completely sensible clause, then, that is the most important clause.

Every complex sentence must have one clause more important than the rest. This clause is called the main clause.

NOTE.—Of course there are sometimes two or more main clauses of equal importance; this is discussed more fully later on.

The business of a main clause is to give the central fact or action which it is desired to communicate. The business of the unim-

portant clauses is to give various little bits of side information: they tell, for example, "how", "when", "why" the act was done, what kind of people they were who did it, with other similar amplifications.

NOTE.—In dealing with a subject for the first time, it seems almost always best not to aim at completeness, if there be any risk of thereby losing distinctness.

In accordance with this principle, it is wisest to state in early teaching that the main clause in a sentence will give complete sense by itself, while other clauses will not do so.

This is not wholly true, for the subject or object of a main clause may itself be a subordinate clause, and if this subject or object clause be subtracted from the main clause, something less than complete sense is left; still, by at first selecting special sentences for practice, the definition can be made true. Afterwards, when some facility has been gained in disentangling the parts of a sentence, the exception may be pointed out.

The ordinary boy-mind will take in the conception of a contingency, with appropriate action to follow; but it will not at the same time take in a limiting contingency on the first contingency.

Section III

We will now go back to our sample sentence, and see what else we can find out from it, about "word-gangs".

SENTENCE

The man, who seemed tired, paused; as though he were in doubt, when he came to the cross roads.

CLAUSES SEPARATED

1. The man paused,
2. Who (= which man) seemed tired,
3. As though he were in doubt,
4. When he came to the cross roads.

WHAT THE CLAUSES DO

No. 1 is the only clause that will make sense alone, and is therefore the **main clause**.

No. 2 tells **what sort of man**. He was a tired-seeming man.

No. 3 tells **how** he paused. We could put the word "doubtfully" instead of the clause.

No. 4 tells **when** he paused.

It is plain from this that "word-gangs" or clauses often do the same kind of work that single words do. Thus "who seemed tired" tells "what sort of" man, but it is **adjective work** to tell "what sort".

"As though he were in doubt" tells "how" he paused, but it is **adverb work** to tell "how".

"When he came to the cross roads" tells
"when" but it is adverb work to tell "when".

We must now make one more sentence, in
order to show yet another kind of word work
that a clause can do.

SENTENCE

I will find out which she likes best

CLAUSES

1. I will find out
2. Which she likes best.

In this particular sentence we must agree
not to think of what the first clause does,
because a little more information will be
necessary before we can do this with success,
and it is not convenient to give this infor-
mation just at present.

We will, therefore, say nothing of Clause
No. 1.

Clause No. 2 plainly acts as the object of
Clause No. 1.

"I will find out"——. Well, what? Why,
"which she likes best".

To be an object is the work of a noun or
pronoun, so this clause must be doing noun
work. We may make this clearer by putting

the noun "preference" instead of the clause "which she likes best". "I ¹/₄ will find; But her preference" gives much the same meaning as the original sentence.

From what we have seen, it follows that one way of labelling the less important clauses will be to call them by the names of those parts of speech whose work they do.

So far we have had clauses which do (1) Adjective work, (2) Adverb work, (3) Noun work; and, as a matter of fact, you will find that the work of unimportant clauses is always of one of these three kinds.

There are thus—

- (1) Main Clauses.
- (2) Adjective Clauses.
- (3) Adverb Clauses.
- (4) Noun Clauses.

Here are some more examples of sentences containing important or main clauses, and the different kinds of unimportant clauses:—

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

Sentence No. 1:

An old woman, whose hair was coal-black,
sat on the hearth.

Clauses divided:

1. An old woman sat on the hearth,
2. Whose (=of which old woman the) hair was coal-black.

What the clauses do:

No. 1. Makes complete sense taken alone,
 ∴ it is the **main clause**.

No. 2. Tells what sort of an old woman (we could put instead of it the word "black-haired"),
 ∴ it is an **adjective clause**.

Statement No. 2:

Where is the old man, who wouldn't say his prayers?

Clauses divided:

1. Where is the old man?
2. Who wouldn't say his prayers.

What the clauses do:

No. 1. Makes complete sense taken alone,
 ∴ it is the **main clause**.

No. 2. Tells what sort of an old man (we could put the word "unpraying" instead of the clause),
 ∴ it is an **adjective clause**.

ADVERB CLAUSES

Sentence:

The town was taken, before help arrived.

Clauses divided:

1. The town was taken,
2. Before help arrived.

What the clauses do:

- No. 1. Makes complete sense taken alone,
 ∴ it is the **main clause**.
- No. 2. Tells when the town was taken,
 ∴ it is an **adverb clause**.

NOUN CLAUSES

Sentence No. 1:

Whether you like this or (whether you do)
 not, does not matter to me.

Clauses divided:

1. Whether you like this,
2. (Whether you do) not (like this),
3.does not matter to me.

What the clauses do:

(In the case of this sentence, and the one on the next page, you must not bother about the main clause, for the reason given on page 67.)

What "does not matter to me"?

Plainly, "whether you like this", or (whether you do) not (like this).

These clauses are, therefore, the subjects to "does not matter". But it is the work of nouns to be subjects,

∴ the clauses 1 and 2 are noun clauses.

To make this clear, we will substitute nouns for them. Thus:—

Your likes and dislikes do not matter to me.

Sentence No. 2:

He did not know where he was.

Clauses divided:

1. He did not know,

2. Where he was.

What the clauses do:

(Clause 1, presumably main, to be put aside.)

What "did he not know"?

Clearly, "where he was",

∴ "where he was" is object of know.

But it is noun's work to be an object,

∴ Clause 2 does noun's work, and is a noun clause.

Again, we can substitute a noun which almost gives the same sense. Thus:—

He did not know his whereabouts.

Section IV

It is a very useful exercise to divide unimportant clauses under these three heads of

Noun, Adjective, Adverb,

but the division is only a broad one. For purposes of exact thought, we must go a little further and subdivide¹ two of these main divisions, according to the particular kind of noun or adverb work on which they are engaged. This is not a mere sad. It is absolutely necessary for the clear understanding of language, and it is to exercise our minds in this habit of clear understanding that we trouble to learn at all.

We wish to train our minds to think as clearly as ever they are able, and it has been found that one of the best means to this end is the study of words and language.

NOTE.—In reconsidering the three classes of unimportant clauses, ~~before we come to~~ to subdivision, we shall take them in this order—

1. Adjective. 2. Adverb. 3. Noun.

We shall take the adjective clauses first, because there is least to be said about them; and the noun clauses last, because, in order to deal with them, we shall have to open up a fresh and important consideration in the structure of language.

¹ The adjective clauses are all of one kind.

FURTHER CONSIDERATION OF ADJECTIVE
CLAUSES

This is the only one of the main divisions of clauses in which there is no need for further subdivision. Before, however, we go on, there is one thing to be said which will prove of value.

If you try to make a clause that tells "which" or "of what sort" somebody or something is, you will always find that this clause is a relative clause.

We may, therefore, lay it down as a rule, that all adjectival clauses are relative clauses. It does not follow, however, that all relative clauses are adjectival.

As a matter of fact, some relative clauses do work, which we shall presently find to be adverb work. This, however, is more particularly the case in Latin than in English.

Section V

FURTHER CONSIDERATION OF ADVERB
CLAUSES

Of course you all know quite well what the business of an adverb is.

Its trade is to tell "how", "when", or

"where" a thing is done, and in "the Tricks" we found that we must add "how often", "how much", and "how far the thing is true". All this we discovered when we were talking about the word trades.

We did not trouble then to think why adverbs were called adverbs, and not some other name, but it will now be useful to account for the term. The meaning of the word is, as you can see, "added to a verb".

True, "adverbs sometimes go with adjectives and other adverbs", but this is not their usual nor main business. Their real task is to tell something about the "doing", and as a rule, they have no concern with any word in the sentence, other than the actual "doing word" or verb.

Now, if you come to think of it, there must be many little accessories of the "doing" that it would be next to impossible to express in one word. For example, could you frame a sentence and then express in one word why the action was done? Or again, could you state in one word the conditions on which a thing was done?

You would find it very difficult, almost impossible. Yet such ideas as "why", or "on what conditions", are exactly the same kind

of accessories to the "doing" as "when" or "how". They affect the verb or action part of the sentence and no other.

It is in expressing these adverb ideas, which are too hard for single adverbs, that the adverb clause finds its principal work. From this it follows that we shall have to extend our list of adverb work so as to include, not only what is possible for single adverbs, but also what can only be accomplished by adverb clauses.

A table is given below which shows the things which it is possible for an adverb clause to do.

TABLE OF THE WORK OF ADVERB CLAUSES

| Adverb-Clauses tell | Examples. |
|--|---|
| 1. How an act is done. | He will sit down, as if he were tired. |
| 2. When an act is done. | He will sit down, after he has spoken to me. |
| 3. Where an act is done. | He will sit down, where he can see the fire. |
| 4. Why an act is done. | He will sit down, because the heat is so great. |
| 5. With what purpose an act is done. | He will sit down, so as not to be seen. |
| 6. Under what drawbacks an act is done. | He will sit down, though the grass is wet. |
| 7. On what conditions an act is done. | He will sit down, if you let him alone. |
| 8. With what consequences an act is done. | The wind was so strong, that it blew the wall down. |

For the sake of clearness we will now make a division to show which of these eight kinds of work can also be done by single adverbs, and which require an adverb clause.

Adverbs can tell "how", "when", "where" an act is done.

Adverb clauses are needed to tell "why", "with what purpose", "under what drawbacks", "on what conditions", "with what consequences" an act is done.

Names have been given to these adverb clauses according to the exact kind of work they do. We will next take the different clauses one at a time, and give the names by which they are each known.

1. "How" clauses. (See also Notes, p. 78.)

Generally "how" can be best expressed by a single word. When a clause is called upon to do the work, it very often contains a comparison, e.g.: "The king walked as if he were an old man". Here there is a comparison between the king and an old man.

Clauses which tell "how" and contain a comparison are called **Comparative Clauses**.

2. "When" clauses. A clause that tells when a thing is done expresses time. The Latin for time is *tempus*, so such clauses are called **Temporal Clauses**.

3. "Where" clauses. (See also Notes at end of section.)

In the grammars no separate account is taken of these clauses, and no name is assigned to them. They do, however, exist, and a natural name for them would be **Locative Clauses**, for they denote place, and *locus* is the Latin for place.

4. "Why" clauses. Clauses which tell "why" give the reason or cause, and they are therefore called **Causal Clauses**.

5. "Purpose" clauses. The Latin for "end", and from that for "purpose", is *finis*. Purpose clauses are therefore called **Final Clauses**.

6. "Drawback" clauses. Clauses expressing a drawback, which was not powerful enough to prevent the main action, are called **Concessive Clauses**.

7. "Condition" clauses. Clauses which express conditions begin with such words as "if" or "unless", and are called **Conditional Clauses**.

8. "Consequence" clauses. A consequence is something which follows, often close after, the act which causes it. The Latin word *consequor* means "to follow close after". These clauses are therefore called **Consecutive Clauses**.

The names given above to the different kinds of adverb clauses are, with the exception of No. 1 and No. 3, in common everyday use. The power to discriminate accurately between these various kinds of clauses is of the greatest help in learning Latin.

TABLE OF THE ADVERB CLAUSES

| | |
|---|--------------|
| 1. "How" clauses are called ... | Comparative. |
| 2. "When" clauses are called ... | Temporal. |
| 3. "Where" clauses may be called ... | Locative. |
| 4. "Why" clauses are called ... | Causal. |
| 5. "Purpose" clauses are called ... | Final. |
| 6. "Drawback" clauses are called ... | Concessive. |
| 7. "Condition" clauses are called ... | Conditional. |
| 8. "Consequence" clauses are called ... | Consecutive. |

NOTES

As is stated above, six of the eight subdivisions of adverb clauses are commonly recognized by the names given. The other two have been added for the sake of approximate completeness, but in each case there is room for discussion.

We have stated that "how" clauses are called comparative; certainly most clauses that tell "how" are comparative, but possibly the comparative form may not be the only means of expressing the idea.

The term "Locative clause" finds no backing from the grammars, and yet it is difficult to see how else some clauses can be classed. Clauses that tell "where" will be found to begin with the word "where". Of course it is just possible

to say that when the word "where" is not an interrogative adverb or a conjunction introducing an indirect question, it is a relative pronoun; but this would seem far-fetched, at any rate in some instances. Examples will best show the possibilities of "where":—

1. Where are you?
2. We asked where she had hidden.
3. We remained where we were.

In the first of these cases "where" asks a question, and is therefore the interrogative adverb (see p. 32).

In the second, "where" joins the two clauses "we asked" and "she had hidden", therefore it is a conjunction. In this case, as will be shown later on, the "where" clause is an indirect question and a noun clause.

In the third case, we can either say that "where" joins the two clauses "we remained", "we were", and is therefore a conjunction, in which case the "where" clause would have to be taken as locative; or we can say that "where" stands for "in the place in which", *i.e.* a relative and its antecedent, just as "what" stands for "that which", the antecedent never being expressed. In this last case we should be compelled to say that the "where" clause was a relative clause qualifying a noun "place" understood.

We have purposely given an example which is favourable to the relative interpretation, but there are many cases in which such an explanation would seem far from sensible or easy, and in which the clause would certainly appear to the untrammelled mind to express place, *e.g.*:

- They found him where the dead were thickest.

In this example the obvious function of the second clause is to tell where the first took place. The two clauses are:

- (1) They found him,
- (2) The dead were thickest;

and there can be no excuse for saying that the main business of "where" is not to join these clauses and be a conjunction.

If it is a conjunction, then the second clause cannot be relative, and if not relative it must be adverbial, and in that case it must express place, and Locative is the best name for it.

The only other point of any freshness here is the use of the word "drawback" as the test and definition of a Concessive clause. This has always worked well in practice. The word has the advantage of expressing truly the nature of these clauses, and the boys always get hold of the idea at once. "Concessive" is a somewhat difficult word to explain, and only the more intelligent boys succeed in thoroughly understanding it; the others simply adopt the trick method of remembering that clauses beginning with "although" are Concessive. Needless to say, this is not sound learning.

Section VI

FURTHER CONSIDERATION OF NOUN CLAUSES

We now come to the last of the three great classes into which clauses are divided. When we have concluded our consideration of this last class we shall have left no kind of clause unmentioned. All the clauses that we use in speaking or writing will then be found to fall under one or other of the main heads, and into one or other of the subdivisions that we have made.

In dealing with this last class, however, we shall be obliged, as was mentioned above, to break quite fresh ground.

An important preliminary question, which we must first settle, is this—Do you understand quite clearly the difference between (1) first-hand speaking, (2) quoting, (3) reporting?

It is most important to be perfectly clear on the point, so we will try to make the difference plain by means of a table.

If ever you go to see one of Gilbert and Sullivan's operas, called *The Pirates of Penzance*, you will hear a song sung by a policeman, in which the constant refrain is, "*A policeman's lot is not a happy one*".

When a man speaks his own thoughts, and you hear his words, those words come straight from him to you. Even when someone else tells you what a man has said, if the someone else quotes the exact words of the original speaker, those words may again be said to come straight to you. (The explanation of this last statement is as follows: If a man quotes or uses the exact words of another he is for the time being an actor playing the part of the original speaker, and you listen to him as though he were the original speaker.) But in the case of reporting all this is changed. The words spoken originally come to you not straight, but through the medium of another

THE ABOVE WORDS

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| <p>1. As Spoken (by the policeman).</p> <p>A policeman's lot is not a happy one.</p> <p>NOTE. — First-hand speaking is giving utterance to our own thoughts.</p> | <p>2. As Quoted (by you to a friend).</p> <p>The policeman sang these words, "A policeman's lot is not a happy one".</p> <p>NOTE. — A man quotes when he repeats to us, after an introductory remark of his own, the actual words another man has used. Inverted commas are placed round these actual words.</p> | <p>3. As Reported (by you to a friend).</p> <p>The policeman said that his (a policeman's) lot was not a happy one.</p> <p>NOTE. — When we do not repeat the exact words heard, but make an introductory remark of our own, and then give the words originally heard, in a slightly changed form, so that they make a part of the same sentence with our introductory remark, we are reporting. The words so changed will not make sense by themselves.</p> |
|--|--|---|

mind, which has altered them as they passed. From this difference an important distinction arises:

When the words of a speaker come straight to your ears, or are quoted to you, the form they take is called

DIRECT

When the words of a speaker do not come to you direct from his own lips, nor yet from the lips of a third person, who for the moment acts the part of the original speaker; but through the mouth of a third person, who has altered the original words, so that they form a part of his own sentences, the form they take is called

INDIRECT

This distinction is of the very greatest importance.

Section VII

If we consider the possibilities of speech, we shall see that the sentences which we use must fall under one of the following heads. (Remember that we are now talking of sentences, not of clauses.) Our sentence must do one of the three following things:—

- (1) Make a statement.
- (2) Ask a question.
- (3) Give a command.

Perhaps it is not quite true to say that these three are the only forms, for there is another; but this fourth form is so closely allied to one of those already given that it almost falls under the same head. It will be well, however, to say a word on this extra form.

Here are two short sentences:

1. Pass the mustard.
2. Pass the mustard, please.

These two are almost identical; the added word in the second alone makes distinction possible. This added word, too, is often omitted, when by right it ought to be put in, and yet no grave consequences ensue. The little word "please" often seems altogether unimportant.

Now, what exact difference does it make?
Just this:—

- (1) "Pass the mustard" is a command.
- (2) "Pass the mustard, please", is a request.

But for purposes of grammar these two, however different in feeling, having the same form, come under the same head.

What is said of commands will apply also to requests.

We will next see what happens when these three sorts of sentences are reported, and change from Direct to Indirect.

NOTE.—It is of importance that boys should be capable of readily and accurately reporting direct speech indirectly. They generally fail to grasp the idea of indirect speech at first, unless the instances given them to work are personal. Most little boys have not much imagination, or do not trouble to use what they have for school purposes. The consequence is that they fail adequately to picture what the exact speech of imaginary persons would be under imaginary circumstances. Remove this stumbling-block by eliminating supposition altogether. Let an actual conversation take place between the teacher and a particular boy, and then ask the other boys what they would say in reporting to some particular person in another room. If this is done once or twice, and the difference between quoting and reporting duly enforced, facility will soon come.

The large table on the next page is intended to be looked at and considered carefully. If this be done, there are several important things which will become clear, or at any rate, clearer to us.

You will notice that all the

Direct statements, questions, and commands are Main or important Clauses.

On the other hand, when you report, you will notice that the explanatory or introduc-

| Direct. | | Indirect. | |
|--|--|---|--|
| 1. Question ... | { " <i>Where are you going, my pretty maid?</i> " } | 1. Question ... | { The gentleman asked the pretty maid <i>where she was going</i> . |
| 2. Statement ... | { " <i>I'm going a-milking,</i> sir," she said. } | 2. Statement ... | { She replied <i>that she was going a-milking</i> . |
| 3. Question ... | { " <i>Alay I come with you, my pretty maid?</i> " } | 3. Question ... | { The gentleman then asked <i>whether he might go with her</i> . |
| 4. Command ... | { " <i>Don't you bother me, sir,</i> " she said. } | 4. Command ... | { But she told him <i>not to bother her</i> . |
| NOTE.—The words in italics on this half of the page are exactly those which came straight to the ears of Eavesdropping Edward, who was listening to the conversation of the gentleman and the maid from the shelter of a wall. | | NOTE.—The words in italics on this half of the page give the form the original conversation took when Eavesdropping Edward reported the matter to his particular friend, Curious Charlie. | |

tory words, which you put in, form the main clauses, and the

Indirect statements, questions, commands are Subordinate or unimportant Clauses.

This is always the case, hence we have three new kinds of unimportant clauses to add to our list.

We must next consider what these unimportant clauses are doing, and for this purpose we must take the sentences one at a time. Turn back to the table, and take the first sentence on the page.

1. "The gentleman asked....."

Well, what did he ask? *Ans.* "Where she was going", of course. "Where she was going" must therefore be the object of asked; but it is noun-work to act as an object, therefore—

The indirect question "where she was going" must be a noun clause.

Now take the second sentence:

2. "She replied....."

Well, what did she reply? *Ans.* "That she was going a-milking". This last clause must, therefore, be the object of "replied", and this is noun-work, therefore

The indirect statement "that she was going a-milking" must be a noun clause.

Now the third:

3. "The gentleman then asked....."

Well, what did he ask? *Ans.* "Whether he might go with her". The object of "asked" is therefore the clause "whether he might go with her". This clause is therefore doing noun-work, therefore, as before,

The indirect question, "whether he might go with her", must be a noun clause.

Now the last:

4. "But she told him....."

Well, what did she tell him? *Ans.* "Not to bother her". The object of "tell" is the clause "not to bother", and therefore

The indirect command "not to bother" must be a noun clause.

It is rather curious that in each of these cases the indirect clause has turned out to be a noun clause.

Of course four cases are much too few to make a rule from; you would have to see a great many more before you could do that. But other people who have seen a great many more examples have always found the same thing, so we shall be quite safe if we say that all three kinds of indirect clauses do the work of nouns. Their business is to serve as subjects, as objects, in apposition, or

in some other position which a noun might fill.

We are now in a position to give a complete table of all the different kinds of unimportant clauses.

UNIMPORTANT CLAUSES

| Adjective. | Adverb. | Noun. |
|--------------|---|--|
| 1. Relative. | 1. Comparative. 2. Temporal. 3. (Locative.) 4. Causal. 5. Final. 6. Consecutive 7. Concessive. 8. Conditional. | 1. Indirect statements. 2. Indirect questions. 3. (Indirect commands. 4. Indirect requests. |

There are altogether a baker's dozen of unimportant or Subordinate Clauses, which we must learn to distinguish. These are all in common everyday use under the names given above, with the exception of Locative Clauses, on which a note has been given (see p. 78).

NOTES

We are endeavouring to find out the different parts of a sentence, in such a way that the greater portion of what we say will hold good, not only of English, but of other languages as well. More particularly are we interested in saying what shall be true of Latin as well as English. But occasionally

we meet with difficulties, because different languages have their own special and different ways of turning the same kind of thought.

In our endeavour to be universal we have said something above which was not strictly true. This intentional inaccuracy took place when we spoke of indirect commands. In English it is not strictly true to class indirect commands or requests as clauses at all.

Let us return to our old example, and consider the matter again. The maid told him *not to bother her*.

The words in italics are the indirect command. Now among them you will not be able to find a verb with a subject, and a verb and its subject are the essentials of a clause, so that in reality an indirect command seems to be no clause at all in English.

Our reasons for classing indirect commands as clauses were twofold:

- (1) Added simplicity in English.
- (2) Because in Latin indirect commands do form clauses.

We will take a fresh example to show the difference in treatment in the two languages.

Direct command.—"Eyes front."

Indirect command.—

1. *English*: The officer told them to look straight before them.

2. *Latin*: The officer ordered, in order that they might look straight before them.

The Latin method would be quite intelligible in English, but practically we never speak in that way.

We have just dealt with a case in which Latin uses a complete clause and English does not; but there is also an example of the contrary usage. This time it is the indirect statements which supply the text.

Let us take the old example:

"The maid said *that she was going a-milking*".

The words in italics, in English, form a perfectly proper

clause. In Latin, however, it would appear at the first blush as though this were not the case. The following shows the Latin method:—

(acc.) (infm.)
 "The maid said *her to be going* a-milking."

You will, of course, say that "*her to be going*" are not a proper verb and subject. This is quite true; but Latin has a peculiar way of looking at such things. Infinitives are used in indirect statements, as though they were finite verbs, and accusatives standing before them are spoken of as their subjects. So, though they are not what we in English should call a verb and a subject, yet the accusative and the infinitive were always regarded in this light in Latin; and so it may be said that the Latin indirect statement is a clause.

Section VIII

Though our classification is now complete, there are still a few observations to be made, which will prove of considerable assistance.

On p. 73 you will find the following statement.

All adjectival clauses are relative, but it does not follow that all relative clauses are adjectival.

In English most, if not all, relative clauses are adjectival. In Latin, however, this is not the case. We will now have an example of a relative clause used non-adjectivally in

Latin. The following would be a good English sentence:—

Men were sent *to look for the lost child.*

The Latin way of expressing the same idea would be as follows:—

Men were sent, *who might look for the lost child.*

Here we have an unmistakable relative clause; but what is it doing? Plainly, it expresses the *purpose* with which the men were sent. But the purpose of an action is an **adverbial idea**.

Therefore, in this case, the relative clause **must be adverbial**.

The relative clause in Latin is used to express several other adverbial ideas besides that of purpose, but it is unnecessary to give examples of all of these.

The most important additional information, however, which we have to give concerns the **indirect question**.

In our poem about the milkmaid we only met with the simplest and easiest forms of such clauses; but there are others much harder to detect, and it is of these that we shall now speak.

It is usual to address questions to other people, but it is also possible to ask a question of oneself. The word which we have to express this self-questioning is "to wonder". As the result of putting a question to yourself or someone else, you get information, and then you know, or do not know. When you know, you are in a position to give information to others; in fact, to tell them.

This little logical string is so useful that it shall be repeated in a column:

1. To ask.
2. To wonder.
3. { To know.
4. { Not to know.
5. To tell.

If you keep this sequence in your head, the indirect question will lose much of its terror.

We must, however, work this matter out at greater length by means of an example.

There was once upon a time a small shepherdess called Bo Peep, who had the bad luck to become parted from her flock. On realizing the loss she set out to look for them, and meeting Little Boy Blue, who followed the

same profession as herself, she at once put to him the

Direct Question — Where have my sheep gone?

Indirect Question (after various introductory forms) —

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. She asked | } where her sheep had gone. |
| 2. She wondered | |
| 3. He knew | |
| 4. He didn't know | |
| 5. He told her | |

You will see at once, that No. 1 and No. 2 are really the only cases in which a question is directly suggested by the introductory remark. Yet if you think a little longer, you will see that in Nos. 3, 4, and 5 a question is also implied; for the fact of arriving at a decision, or any kind of knowledge, also the imparting of knowledge, all imply a previous state of mental indecision or questioning.

You may, perhaps, find a little difficulty in grasping this idea all at once, but you will get it in time.

In any case, one thing will be clear, namely, that the same form of subordinate clause makes perfect sense after each separate form of introducing words given in the example.

This alone makes it probable that there is some underlying similarity.

It must not be supposed that these five forms of introduction exhaust all possibilities. This is far from being the case, but they do give in their several steps an outline of those possibilities. Knowing these, you should have no difficulty in dragging to the light any indirect question, that may strive to conceal itself under cover of a main clause that, at the first glance, does not seem to suggest a question at all.

Section IX

FURTHER CONSIDERATION OF SENTENCES

From what has gone before, you might, perhaps, think that a sentence must either consist of one main clause, or of one main clause together with one or more subordinate clauses. This, however, is not the case. As a matter of fact, a sentence may consist of one or more main clauses, or of one or more main clauses with subordinate clauses attached.

We must now consider this matter at greater length.

There are certain conjunctions whose busi-

ness it is to join clauses of equal value. That is to say, they will join two main clauses or two subordinate clauses of the same kind.

NOTE

[The English Grammars usually divide sentences as follows:—

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. One main clause | = Simple sentence. |
| 2. Two or more main clauses | = Compound sentence. |
| 3. One or more main clauses + one or more subordinate | } = Complex sentence. |

But the names we give to the different kinds do not really matter so long as you understand the different possibilities which exist.]

Common sense would enable us to distinguish such conjunctions, but there will be no harm in giving a few examples. "And", "but", "either ... or", are conjunctions of the kind we mean. It is by means of these conjunctions that we make sentences with more than one main clause. Here is an example of a sentence made up of two main clauses:

Compound sentence { 1. The dog ceased barking,
 and
 2. (the dog) wagged his tail.

Each of the two clauses, No. 1 and No. 2, will make sense by itself, so there are two main clauses, and the sentence is Compound.

Here is an example of a sentence with two main clauses with subordinate clauses attached:—

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Complex sentence { | 1. The lion was frightened |
| | when |
| | 2. he heard the explosion, |
| | and |
| | 3. (he) bounded away into the thicket |
| | 4. from which he had come. |

Clauses 1 and 3 each make complete sense, and are therefore main clauses; they are joined by "and".

Clause 2 tells "when" the lion was frightened, and is, therefore, an unimportant or subordinate clause attached to Clause 1.

Clause 4 tells "which" thicket, and "thicket" is a word in Clause 3, therefore this clause is subordinate to Clause 3. This sentence is therefore made up of: two main clauses, one temporal clause, one relative (adjective) clause.

But these conjunctions which join clauses of equal value to each other can, of course, join subordinate clauses to one another just as readily as main clauses, so long as such subordinate clauses are of the same kind. From this it follows that a sentence may often contain two or more subordinate clauses of the same kind. As a practical help, be-

ginners may remember that "and" always joins clauses of equal value.

When two main clauses are joined in this way they are said to be co-ordinate clauses.

The English language is very fond of sentences formed by strings of co-ordinate clauses.

The Latin language is averse to co-ordination, and prefers a sentence formed from one main clause and a number of subordinate clauses.

The Latin method is, in reality, truer and more thoughtful than the English. Many clauses put down in English as equal are not so in reality. The Latin thinks out the true relation of the clauses in point of sense, and sets them all in their real places with regard to one another.

On the next page is a table showing this difference. On the English side we have five pairs of co-ordinate clauses, joined by "and"; on the Latin, five main clauses, each with a subordinate clause. Nor is this all, for these subordinate clauses do amongst them no less than four different kinds of work.

| ENGLISH | (becomes in) | LATIN |
|--|------------------|--|
| I. He put on his hat and (he) went out. | (main) (main) | He went out when he had put on his hat. (main) (temporal) |
| II. They went and (they) looked at the house. | (main) (main) | They went in order that they might look at the house. (main) (final) |
| III. My life was not sweet to me, and I carried it carelessly. | (main) (main) | I carried my life carelessly because it was not sweet to me. (main) (causal) |
| IV. He read the letter slowly, and (he) darted from the room. | (main) (main) | He darted from the room after that he had read the letter slowly. (main) (temporal) |
| V. The paper fluttered from her hand, and lodged on the trees below. | (main) (main) | The paper fluttered from her hand so that it lodged on the trees below. (main) (consecutive) |

Section X

ON CLAUSES SUBORDINATE TO SUBORDINATE
CLAUSES

There is yet one more point on which a word is advisable.

A king often has great men for his servants; thus, the prime minister is one of the king's servants. But the prime minister, of course, has servants of his own, and of these the head servants, such as the butler and the house-keeper, are rather important people, and have servants under them. In this way we get a chain reaching from the king to the boy who runs the errands and blacks the boots.

Now if we look upon main clauses as kings, we often get the same kind of chain. Thus:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| 1. Main clause | = King. |
| 2. Subordinate clause | = Servant of king. |
| 3. Clause subordinate to subordinate clause | } = Servant of servant of king. |

We might go even further than this, and get a clause, which was servant of a servant of a servant of a servant of a servant of the king. This, however, would be very complicated; in fact, when the string of clauses becomes as long as this the meaning is very apt to become obscured, or be lost altogether.

Such writing or speaking is called involved, and is not good.

A clause is said to be subordinate to a subordinate clause, when its business is to perform one of the usual offices of the unimportant clauses, for some word (noun, adjective, adverb, verb) which is itself in a subordinate clause. *E.g.*:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------|
| 1. We lost our way | (Main) |
| 2. Before we came to the ridge | (Temporal) |
| 3. Which divides the moor. | (Adjective) |

No. 3 tells what sort of a "ridge", and the word "ridge" is in a clause subordinate to clause No. 1, therefore clause No. 3 is subordinate to a subordinate clause.

EXAMPLE OF A SENTENCE IN WHICH THE CHAIN OF SUBORDINATION IS CARRIED A VERY LONG WAY

- | | |
|---|--------------------|
| 1. This is the cat | = Main clause. |
| 2. that (= which cat) killed the rat | Tells which cat. |
| 3. that (= which rat) ate the malt | Tells which rat. |
| 4. that (= which malt) lay in the house | Tells which malt. |
| 5. that (= which house) Jack built. | Tells which house. |

In this case all the clauses except No. 1 are adjective clauses, and in each case the noun to which they refer is in the previous clause. In this case, therefore, we get ser-

vants four deep. Of course we do not usually speak in this way; and were it not for the fact that in this string the clauses are all of the same kind, we should not be able to carry the meaning in our heads at all.

EXAMPLE OF A SENTENCE NOT TOO INVOLVED

Sentence:

The attendants, who had cleared the table, while we were looking at the fireworks, now left the room.

The Clauses divided:

1. The attendants now left the room.
2. who (= which attendants) had cleared the table,
3. while we were looking at the fireworks.

What the Clauses do:

1. Makes complete sense = Main clause.
2. Tells what sort of attendants = Adjective clause.
3. Tells when the tables were cleared = Temporal clause.

From this it is plain that clause 2 is servant of the "king" clause, and clause 3 is servant of clause 2, which is itself a servant. For No. 3 has no direct connection with No. 1, and if we were to read these two together as though there were a connection, we should get a sense different from the one intended. Let us try:

The servants left the room, while we were looking at the fireworks.

But they didn't do this; they cleared the table while we looked at the fireworks. From this it is quite plain that clause 3 tells us, not when clause 1, but when clause 2 took place, \therefore clause 3 is the servant of clause 2 and not of clause 1.

FINAL ADVICE BEFORE WE TURN TO LATIN

Before leaving this part of our subject we wish to illustrate generally by means of a concrete parallel how you may best set about discovering the exact relations to one another of the parts of any sentence which may be put before you.

A gold-digger finds the gold he seeks either running in small streaks or specks through the body of the gold-bearing rocks, or else deposited at the bottoms of rivers, where it mingles as fine dust among the sand and gravel that lie there. When the gold is found in rocks, these rocks have to be pounded by machines called stamps, until they are reduced to powder.—The gravel and mud from a river bed is sufficiently fine without stamping.

What next?

If you were on a gold-field you would

notice long troughs of wood, set so as to fall or slope in one direction, and standing for that purpose on wooden legs. They are not so much troughs, perhaps, as wooden channels, such as you sometimes see for carrying water over the top of a mill-wheel. Troughs have ends, but these channels have no ends, and are of considerable length. They are so arranged that a strong stream of water can be turned in at the top end. Owing to the slope, this water will, of course, flow rapidly down, and will eventually run out at the other end.

It is in the second process of gold-getting that these troughs are used.

You know that gold is heavy; a particle of gold is much heavier than any rock particle of the same size could be. The gold-seeker turns this fact to profit. He takes the gravel from the river, or the powdered rock from the stamps, and puts it in one of the troughs at the higher end. The water is then turned on. What happens? Why, the current at once begins to wash away the pile of sand and gravel, spreading it over the bottom of the trough from end to end, and carrying some of it right out at the lower opening.

When the current has been flowing for a

sufficient time the water is turned off and a condition of things for which, perhaps, you were hardly prepared, is revealed. Towards the top of the trough there is nothing but gold lying; lower down, nothing but gravel. If we had let the current act a little longer, all the gravel and sand would have been washed out at the lower end, and the gold alone have been left in the trough. The water, though strong enough to carry down the lighter particles of sand and gravel, has not had sufficient strength to move the gold, and this has been left behind. The process we have just described is called gold-washing.

The advice which we have to offer you is that, when face to face with a strange sentence, you should look on yourself, for the time being, as a gold-miner. The gold that you seek is the main clause, the sentence from which you desire to extract it is the gold-bearing rock.

First put your sentence under the stamps, and break it up into clauses; next place your "clause-gravel" in an imaginary trough, and direct upon it a strong stream, not of water, but of common sense. If your stream is strong enough its force will be sufficient to wash away all the unimportant clauses, and your

golden main clause or clauses will be left behind.

Of course, uninstructed common sense will not be enough by itself; you will have to use all the knowledge which we have acquired in our past examination of clause work.

When you have washed away all the clauses you can, see whether the clause or clauses left can stand alone and make complete sense. This is the general test of the main clause. The main clause of a sentence will always make complete sense, unless a noun clause is used to form a part of it. If the words remaining, after all the unimportant clauses have been missed out, will not make sense, see whether there is a noun clause the inclusion of which will enable them to do so.

Having determined the main clause, go through the other clauses again carefully, and decide exactly what each is doing; which are servants of the main clause, which are servants of servant clauses; and determine the nature of the service which each renders. If you have followed carefully all the steps by which we arrived at a classification of clauses, you should have no difficulty in reaching just conclusions.

This is all there is to be said about the way

sentences are built up, and the word-gangs do their work. The next step will be to see how the knowledge we have gained will help us in learning Latin, but for that we shall need a fresh start.

NOTE.—No terms have been employed in these pages which are not used every day in dealing with Latin, excepting only the term "complex sentence", and there is no reason why this also should not be used when needed. The word "dependent" is often used instead of "subordinate".

BOOK III

ON BEGINNING LATIN

Section I

In this chapter we shall abandon the language of a teacher to his class, and addressing ourselves to the teacher alone, shall discuss the question how and when to begin Latin.

It would be quite a mistake to imagine that the functions of words and phrases should be completely mastered before some start is made. This is so far from being the case that, though a certain amount of English grammar must come first, yet once that amount is acquired, English and Latin will go on better side by side.

Ideas may differ as to what precisely this preliminary minimum should be, but, in the writer's opinion, it is exactly represented by a knowledge of what we have termed the "word-trades"; that is to say, by a working acquaintance with all the commoner functions of all the parts of speech.

When once a boy has advanced so far he

is not so likely to be corrupted by the rote methods that early Latin rather favours, and may begin with advantage upon one of the first Latin Books, which give exercises upon the four regular conjugations and the declensions of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns.

Some two terms will probably be occupied in working through a book of this sort, and meanwhile the English Grammar should be going on apace, so that by the time the Latin Exercise Book is finished, he should have completely mastered the lesser and more difficult functions of words, as set forth in the chapter headed "Tricks of the Trades", and should also have had his attention directed to the special words noted in the subsequent chapter.

After the Exercise Book has been in use for a term, translation may be usefully taken in hand. There is an almost unlimited choice of First Translation Books, and we shall only here indicate what would seem to be the essential marks of a good book for teaching purposes. Such essentials may be briefly stated as follows:—

1. The vocabulary should be selected so as to contain nothing but ordinary Latin words.
2. New words should be introduced syste-

matically, and should be repeated in different connections as soon as possible after the first introduction.

3. The first few sections of Latin should be composed as far as possible of main clauses only.

4. The different types of subordinate clauses should be brought in one at a time, and each should be rendered familiar by repetition before a new variety is introduced.

5. The subject-matter should, so far as possible, be a consecutive story and not a mere collection of irrelevant anecdotes on subjects calling for the use of words that are seldom found in the Latin authors which the boy will afterwards read.

Once translation is begun, the question of clauses becomes almost paramount, but there will be no occasion to treat the subject as a whole yet awhile. A considerable knowledge of English clauses will have been gained when dealing with conjunctions, and this together with special explanations, as each new form of subordinate clause is encountered in Latin, will suffice for a considerable time. The moment will come sooner or later, however, when a complete survey of the whole field

| | English Grammar. | Latin Ex. and Accidence. | Latin Trans. |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|----------------|
| TERM I. 1st Half. 2nd Half. | "Word Trades" ($\frac{3}{4}$ hour daily.) | — | — |
| | "Tricks of Trades" ($\frac{3}{4}$ hour daily.) | 1st Lat. Ex. Book and Accidence. ¹ | — |
| TERM II. 1st Half. 2nd Half. | "Tricks of Trades" ($\frac{3}{4}$ hour daily.) | Do. | — |
| | "Special Words" ($\frac{3}{4}$ hour daily.) | Do. | Lat. Trans. |
| TERM III. 1st Half. 2nd Half. | The functions of two words to be discovered and writ- ten down daily. Weekly repetition of the defini- tions of word functions (i.e. the "Word Trades" and the "Tricks of the Trades"). ($\frac{3}{4}$ hour daily + $\frac{1}{4}$ once a week.) | Do. | Do. |
| | | 2nd Lat. Ex. Book and Accidence. ² | Do. |
| TERM IV. 1st Half. 2nd Half. | Do. | Do. | Do. |
| | "The Parts of a Sentence." Bk. II. ($\frac{3}{4}$ hour daily.) | Do. | — ³ |

NOTES.—¹ It is assumed that the First Lat. Ex. Book covers the regular conjugations Act. and Pass., and the declensions of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

² The Second Ex. Book is taken to begin with the expression of Time and Place in Latin, and to go on with the different forms of subordinate clauses: Relative, Final, Consecutive, &c. &c.

³ Latin Translation may or may not be omitted according to convenience, while the extra time is being given to the various forms of subordinate clauses in English.

About the fifth term a boy might be ready to begin easy *Caesar*.

should give a greatly enhanced sense of power.

The exact point at which this survey may most advantageously be made must depend on many variable circumstances; but generally, it may be said that the time will not arrive until most of the clause functions have been explained piecemeal in the course of the Latin lessons. When this has been done, it will be well worth while to shelve Latin entirely for a day or two, and to go systematically through the whole of the matter dealt with in Book II of this work, down to the table given on p. 89.

The foregoing sketch, if it has been successful, has given some idea of the relations between the English grammar and the Latin lessons. We will next turn to the actual detail of teaching Latin translation.

Section II

When beginning translation our first care should be to inculcate a correct, even if rather machine-like method of tackling the Latin clause. The following have proved in practice to be steps on which it is worth while to insist.

THE WAY TO TACKLE A LATIN CLAUSE

1. Find the verb.
2. See whether it is singular or plural.
3. Is it in a person, that can have a noun subject?
4. If the answer to the last question is "Yes", see whether there is one.
5. If there is no subject expressed, what must you put in?
6. Translate the verb and its subject.
7. Is the verb transitive or intransitive?
8. If transitive, look for an object.
9. Are there any adjectives agreeing with the subject or object? If so, translate them in their right places.
10. Fit in any words that remain.

It is of the greatest importance to insist for a long time on a rigid adherence to the above method. Most of the mistakes that boys make arise from "thinking they see what it means", and trying to take the words in the printed order. As experience grows, other pieces of routine may be adopted for special sentences. *E.g.:*

1. After a passive verb, always look for the person or thing by whom or which the act was done.

2. Always look for a prolative infinitive after those verbs which you have noticed generally take such an infinitive.

E.g.: *hoc facere voluit*, he wished to do this.

Section III

Very soon sentences will be met with containing unimportant or subordinate clauses. These clauses should be examined, and their exact functions determined, but there will be no need, for some time to come, to class them under general heads. It will suffice to speak of them as "time" clauses, "cause" clauses, and so forth.

If the definitions and tests for the relative pronoun given on p. 29 have been used, the idea of missing out a clause, and yet leaving sense behind, will have already become quite familiar. We now extend the application of this idea, and show how each new kind of clause that we meet with is, for some reason or other, "unimportant", and can be missed out.

In tackling a complete sentence the first act, therefore, becomes the missing out of all "unimportant" clauses; and so arriving, by the gold-miner's method, at the main clause.

The following is perhaps the best method for a beginner when face to face for the first time with a Latin sentence.

Count the verbs in the indicative, imperative, or subjunctive. This number gives the number of clauses. Next proceed to miss out the unimportant clauses.

A relative clause is easily identified.

The "time" conjunctions, *ubi*, *postquam*, *antequam*, *dum*, *quum*, soon become familiar, and their presence is the sign of a time-clause to be omitted.

The same holds of the "causal" conjunction *quod*.

Boys soon recognize *etsi* and *quanquam*; and their meaning, "although", shows that they introduce a drawback, which must be promptly put on one side.

• *Ut* becomes the mark of a "final" or "consecutive" clause. And lastly as a *tip*, covering many cases, we may give the information that any clause with its verb in the subjunctive is unimportant. This information is sufficient to enable the main clause to be left high and dry in almost any sentence.

Section IV

When the eliminating process has been completed the main clause or clauses must be taken and translated, following for each clause all the steps given on p. 113. Next, the relative clauses must be fitted in after their antecedents; and finally, all other clauses must be taken, one at a time, the whole process of p. 113 being gone through separately in each case.

If this method be insisted upon, *and persevered in for a sufficient time*, the boys will soon learn to tackle a sentence with confidence. They will have a definite routine to go through in each case, and at any rate will not be forced to waste time doing nothing, which is the fate of many boys over their early translation.

For some time after the beginning of translation the working out should be done in class, by which means alone the exact application of the correct process can be secured. We have found that in the third or fourth term boys seem to gain sufficient confidence to walk alone, and experience has proved that, after careful teaching, a very average boy will then be able to work out and write

down in English in an hour such easy pieces of about ten lines length as are found in a First Translation Book. The faster he gets on and the more ground he covers, the greater his interest; and to gain intellectual interest is everything. A thirst for marks is a diseased craving, and to be discouraged, as positively inimical to real interest.

Once the point is reached, where a boy can take a piece of very easy Latin and work out the meaning entirely by himself, there is nothing to be said but "Go on and prosper". The main idea of sentence construction should by then be firmly grasped, and it only remains to give adequate and clear explanation of each new type of clause as it occurs. This is the point at which the comprehensive view might be given with advantage.

Of course, if so desired, the whole ground of clause-work might be taken continuously and separately in English as apart from Latin. Most boys, however, have to learn Latin, and it is more economical of time, and just as effective, to develop the English and Latin side by side.

There is only one more point to be urged. In a properly graduated translation book, it is possible to account for everything as it

occurs. No case or subjunctive need be passed by; the right names and correct functions can be assigned on every occasion, and there is a great advantage in so doing. The certainty and conscious mastery obtained are feelings which, of all others, it should be our aim to develop. Once allow things to be slurred over, and fog will immediately begin to settle. An idea will grow up in the boy's mind that there is so much mystery about such matters, that exact or correct knowledge is largely a matter of chance. From this grows disinclination for honest work and a belief in flukes. Impress, not the difficulties, but the simplicities, and always hold before the boy's eyes the near possibility of a complete grip of the matter in hand.

It is chiefly, we believe, from the disconnected learning of one construction in one form and another in another, one bit of syntax here and another there, that the pathway of learning seems so arduous to boys. They would advance much more confidently, were it made clear to them that all these disconnected facts have each a rightful place in a complete scheme, a scheme which they themselves are capable of thoroughly and easily grasping.

NOTE.—A boy need not know how to read and write perfectly in order to begin grammar. There is no occasion for any writing at all; indeed, it is a thing rather to be avoided, and reading can be reduced to a minimum. A boy of eight is quite old enough to make a start, and by the time he is nine "the work of words" should present few difficulties; while, from the very beginning, he should find in their consideration an interesting field for the employment of his natural mental energy.

The gaining of clear logical ideas always saves time in the end: the aim of this little book is to make it easy to gain clear logical ideas on the nature of words and sentences. A boy might quite easily assimilate the whole of its subject-matter before he is eleven; but should he have reached a greater age without having had the opportunity of doing so, years need be no bar to his undertaking the task later; for this is one of those cases where the proverb "better late than never" is emphatically true.

APPENDIX

ON PHRASES

A phrase is any combination of words, not forming a clause, which does the same work as some one of the parts of speech.

In speaking we must perforce use words; words are therefore the first essential of any kind of speech. If our words are to be intelligible they must arrange themselves in sentences, and the sentences must be made up of one or more clauses; therefore clauses are a first essential of intelligible speech. Sometimes the words within a clause will form themselves into phrases, but this is not always the case, and the phrase is rather in the nature of an accidental grouping than a structural necessity; for which reason phrases cannot be counted as essentials.

To illustrate the exact state of the case concretely, we may compare words to the colours in the hands of a decorative artist; clauses to the ordered and balanced divisions of his design; but phrases rather to those half-accidental runnings and blendings of the

colours, which give beauty, indeed, but are in no way the essentials of his work.

This statement should make clear our reasons for having heretofore disregarded the "phrase" entirely, and for having confined our attention to "words" and "clauses".

We will now give some examples of phrases. In each case the words forming the phrase are in italics, and the name of the part of speech whose work the phrase does will be put in brackets alongside.

| | |
|---|---------------|
| The shop <i>round the corner</i> . | (Adjective) |
| <i>In spite of</i> the rain. | (Preposition) |
| <i>Among the ancients</i> , madness was revered. | (Adverb) |
| <i>Sitting on a safety-valve</i> is dangerous work. | (Noun) |

We should not have spent any time over phrases, were there not one part of speech whose functions cannot be made completely intelligible without some knowledge of them.

The definitions of preposition work, in Book I, were as follows. On p. 21:

"Little words, whose business it is to be capable of standing before one noun or pronoun, to show its relation with another noun or pronoun, are called prepositions."

And on p. 33:

Very frequently the first noun or pronoun is not present. "In this case, it will be

necessary to see whether the word you suspect of being a preposition ever could show a 'relation'."

Little exception can be taken to these two complementary statements: they are true, and yet they are not wholly satisfactory, and that, for the following reasons:—

(1) It would be better, if possible, to state the exact work that a word usually does, rather than to say that it is capable of doing a certain thing.

(2) Strictly speaking, the first noun or pronoun is missing as often as not.

There is one thing certain about a preposition, namely, that it must stand before a noun or a pronoun, which it is said to govern.

It will be found, on examination, that a preposition, with the word or words it governs, always forms a phrase; but it will also be found that the nature of such phrases varies, and that they do not always perform the work of the same part of speech.

We will take a sentence in which several phrases with prepositions occur, and endeavour by observation to clear our ideas on the subject.

"The road to Hermiston runs for a great

part of the way up the valley of a stream,
 a favourite with anglers, and with midges,
 full of falls and pools, and shaded by
 willows and natural woods of birch."

| The Phrase. | What it Does. | ∴ it Acts as a Part of Speech. |
|------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| To Hermiston | Tells which road ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adjective. |
| For a great part | { Tells how much the road runs ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adverb. |
| Of the way ... | Tells which part ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adjective. |
| Up the valley | { Tells where the road runs ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adverb. |
| Of a stream ... | { Tells what sort of a valley ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adjective. |
| With anglers | { Tells what sort of a favourite ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adjective. |
| Of falls ... | { Tells how the stream was full ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adverb. |
| By willows ... | { Tells how the stream was shaded ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adverb. |
| Of birch ... | { Tells what sort of woods ... | { ∴ it acts as an Adjective. |

It turns out that in this sentence, taken quite at random, five prepositions introduce adjective phrases and four introduce adverb phrases. It will be found that nearly all preposition phrases fall under one or other of these two heads, the proportion of adverb phrases being perhaps slightly the larger.

A further glance at the phrases on the previous page will convince you that, strictly speaking, it is only when the preposition forms part of an adjective phrase that it shows a relation between two nouns. But though this is the case, all prepositions are "capable" of doing so under suitable conditions.

The following are the cases in the example where a relation between two nouns is shown:—

- (1) "road to Hermiston",
- (2) "part of the way",
- (3) "valley of a stream",
- (4) "favourite with anglers",
- (5) "woods of birch".

In the case of the other prepositions it will be found that, either no intelligible relation between two nouns is shown; or else, though an intelligible relation can be found, it is one at variance with the general sense.

The real fact is, that it is only when a preposition introduces an adjective phrase that it does show a relation between two nouns. When it introduces an adverb phrase it connects the word it governs with a verb.

It is this variability in function that causes

the difficulty of defining a preposition's work.

It has been proposed to get over the difficulty thus, and to say: "A preposition stands before a noun or pronoun, and joins it to some other word in the sentence".

This is a perfectly true and complete statement of the case, but it labours under two disadvantages:

(1) It means nothing at all without a great deal of explanation and previous knowledge.

(2) It is objectionable in teaching to introduce the word or idea of "joining", as this notion is best kept zealously apart, and appropriated to the conjunctions.

If the definition be given in this form, a beginner has not a ghost of a notion how to find out whether a word is doing what the definition says it can do. The choice is far too large, and not nearly definite enough. No intelligible function whatever is presented to his mind, and at that stage he is quite incapable of following all the explanations necessary to show what the function really is.

The practical outcome of using such a definition would, with nine small boys out of ten, be muddle. This is just one of those cases where it is wiser to state a part of the truth as though it were the whole, and so to

leave a clear impression, rather than conscientiously to state the whole truth, and leave no impression at all.

By the two-noun-relation method, it is possible to give a working idea of prepositions in five minutes, and this working notion will do quite well for some time:

Flowers in garden.

Fish under water.

Book on table.

Such combinations of words are quite distinctive, and in practice form a perfect test for beginners to use. Though, in many cases, the two nouns are not present in the sentence, yet a preposition is always "capable" of showing a relation between two nouns, and imaginary nouns can be used in the test.

The examples taken at first can be selected so that the rule in its partial form holds true. It will even be allowable to take the subject of the verb, where the preposition forms part of an adverb phrase, as the first noun. In a great many cases a perfectly intelligible sense is got in this way, *e.g.*:

The dog was swimming in the river.

"In the river" is an adverb phrase, but

"dog in river" gives a perfectly good sense, though not scientifically correct.

The object of this book, however, is not to be scientifically grammatical, but to give practical explanations, and tests which small boys can use.

When all the word-trades, and all the tricks, and all the talk about clauses have been carefully worked through, it will be quite soon enough to come back and realize how unscientific our dealings with prepositions have been.

As for our objection to the use of the word "join" in the definition of a preposition's function, we may be more brief.

Our position is this. The conjunction is a much more important part of speech than the preposition, introducing as it does the very far-reaching idea of the exact logical interdependence of the parts of a sentence, and also of sentences upon each other. The work of a conjunction is "to join", and it would be a great mistake to run the risk, we might almost say to incur the certainty, of spoiling the clear conception of a conjunction's work, by introducing the word "join" in the definition of a preposition.

To one more point, and only one, would

we draw attention. A phrase may form part of another phrase. Thus, *e.g.*:

"He had a pair of knitted boot-hose drawn above the knee".

"*Above the knee*" tells where the boot-hose were drawn, therefore it acts as an *Adverb*; but "*drawn above the knee*" tells what sort of boot-hose, therefore it is an *Adjective*.

We have mentioned that the chief reason for noticing phrases has been the fact that, without some such consideration, the real functions of a Preposition cannot be completely understood. There is, however, another reason for doing so, of some weight where translation from Latin into English is concerned. Just as, in tackling a Latin sentence, it is important to distinguish and miss out the unimportant clauses, so, in finding the meaning of a Latin clause, it is often of great assistance to be able to recognize, and at first to put on one side, the unimportant phrase.

INDEX

Adjectival Clauses, 68, 69,
73, 91, 92.
Adjectives, 19, 26.
Adverbial Clauses, 70-80.
Adverbs, 20, 32, 33.
Auxiliary Verbs, 37-40.
Causal Clauses, 77.
Clauses, 63.
Commands, 84.
Comparative Clauses, 76,
78.
Complements, 38, 40, 41.
Complex Sentences, 61, 97.
Compound Sentences, 61,
96.
Concessive Clauses, 77.
Conditional Clauses, 77.
Conjunctions, 22, 34, 35,
36.
Consecutive Clauses, 77.
Co-ordinate Clauses, 98, 99.
Demonstrative Adjectives,
26, 28.
— Pronouns, 28.
Direct Commands, 86.
— Questions, 86.
— Requests, 84.

Direct Speech, 83-86.
— Statements, 86.
Final Clauses, 77.
Indirect Commands, 86, 90.
— Questions, 86, 93, 94.
— Requests, 86.
— Speech, 83, 86.
— Statements, 86, 90, 91.
Interjections, 23, 37.
Interrogative Adjectives, 26,
31.
— Adverbs, 32.
— Pronouns, 31.
"Locative" Clauses, 77, 78,
79.
Main Clauses, 64, 65.
Noun Clauses, 70, 71, 80-88.
Nouns, 17, 25, 26.
Numeral Adjectives, 26.
Personal Pronouns, 27.
Phrases, 120-128.
Possessive Adjectives, 26,
27.
— Pronouns, 27.
Prepositions, 21, 33, 34,
122-128.
Pronouns, 18, 27-31.

Questions, 84.

"Quoting", 81, 82.

Reflexive Pronouns, 31.

Relative Clauses, 73, 91, 92.

— Pronouns, 29, 30.

"Reporting", 81, 82.

Sentence, 58.

Simple Sentence, 60.

Statements, 84.

Subordinate Clauses, 89.

Subordinate to Subordinate
Clauses, 100-102.

Temporal Clauses, 76, 78.

"That", 51, 52, 53.

"Unimportant" Clauses, 89.

Verbs, 19, 37-40.

"What", 53-56.

"Where", 36, 78, 79.

Words ending in "-ing",
48-51.